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King's College, 2nd Jan. 1840.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, JANUARY 4, 1846.

## REVIEWS

*A Disquisition on the Scene, Origin, Date, &c. of Shakespeare's Tempest.* By the Rev. Joseph Hunter, F.S.A.

A new commentary upon, and some interesting discoveries respecting the most imaginative of the creations of Shakespeare's boundless fancy, by a writer distinguished for laborious research and critical abilities, cannot fail to excite public attention.

It has been hitherto supposed, that if the island of Bermuda was not actually the scene of Prospero's enchantments, it must have been present to Shakespeare's mind; that not only does the 'Tempest' contain many allusions to the wreck of two Englishmen (Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas Gates) in the Bermudean seas in 1609, but that some passages were taken from a narrative of that event, printed by Sil. Jourdan in 1610; and, consequently, that the play could not have been written before that year,—Mr. Malone assigning its composition to 1611, and Mr. Chalmers to 1613,—which inferences are supported by other circumstances. All these theories are now attempted to be refuted by Mr. Hunter. He contends that Bermuda was not the scene of the 'Tempest'; and he assigns strong grounds for thinking that, instead of being one of the latest, it was among the earliest of Shakespeare's productions. But here ends our belief in the soundness of Mr. Hunter's views; and though there is much probability in many of his other conjectures, a few of them are so wild, as to approach closely to absurdity. If, however, he does not convert his readers to his opinions, it is not from his own want of confidence in them:

"If," he says, "I now fail to convince you that the island of Prospero is at last discovered, and that when Shakespeare began this play, he had not *Jourdan's* pamphlet before him, but a far *worthier* work, I must suppose myself the sport of some such mischievous spirit as Ariel, and nothing will remain for me but to retire from the scene, like Prospero himself, breaking my staff and drowning my unhappy book. I do not propose to rest even here: I have other new and curious views to unfold; not, I am persuaded, airy unreal visions, such as deluded the senses of Alonso and his companions, but real substantial truths. Perhaps I may shew you an archetype of Caliban, who is generally supposed to be a creature wholly of Shakespeare's imagination. I do not even despair of succeeding in a still bolder part of my undertaking, and convincing you, in opposition to the whole body of critics and commentators, that *The Tempest*, instead of being the latest work of this great master, is in reality one of the earliest, nearly the first in time, as the first in place, of the dramas which are wholly his. The other conclusions are of great importance in the criticism of this one play, but the last is important in the history of the Poet's mind, studies, and genius."

Before examining the pretensions of the island which Mr. Hunter has substituted for Bermuda, it is desirable to inquire upon what authority Bermuda has been considered Prospero's isle. A careful perusal of the 'Tempest' is sufficient to prove the impossibility of any island out of the Mediterranean being the scene of the play. Prospero and Miranda, when banished from Milan, are "hurried on board a bark," taken some leagues to sea, placed in a frail boat, and left to the mercy of the waves, which cast them upon an island. Though they had "some food and some fresh water," it cannot be supposed that in such a vessel, without rigging, sails, or mast, they could have endured a voyage of several thousand miles in the Atlantic Ocean. The clear inference therefore is, that they floated upon one of the innumerable islands within a day or two's sail of the coast of Italy. It must

be remembered, that Prospero's art had no influence over his own fortunes, until he came to the island and found an attendant spirit to obey his behests; and every circumstance before his arrival there must be attributed to, and be supposed to have depended entirely upon, natural causes. That the island was situated in the Mediterranean, is further proved by Sycorax (Caliban's mother) having been brought there from Algiers; by Alonso and his companions having been wrecked upon it on their return from Tunis to Naples; and by Ariel's saying that the King's fleet, which he had dispersed, were

—upon the Mediterranean flote  
Bound sadly home for Naples.

In truth, there is not one word throughout the Play, contradictory of, or inconsistent with, every incident having occurred in the Mediterranean; and never was there a wilder, or more improbable theory, than that the Atlantic Ocean was the scene of the 'Tempest.'

The origin of the Bermudean theory is, however, obvious enough; and it is only another instance of the manner in which commentators have been beguiled by the will-o'-th'-wisps of literature. To Prospero's inquiry of Ariel, how he had disposed of the King's ship and all the rest of the fleet? he replied—

Safely in harbour  
Is the King's ship: in the deep nook, where once  
Thou call'dst me up at midnight to fetch dew  
From the still vex'd Bermoothes, there she's hid.

Of this passage even Mr. Hunter seems to feel the difficulty; and he has shown much ingenuity in his attempt to explain it:

"The words of Ariel," he says, "are proof indubitable that the mind of the Poet was once at least directed on this island as he wrote the play, and on the stormy character of the seas by which it is surrounded. But when I have admitted this, I have admitted all that can justly be inferred from this passage, if it can be shewn that Bermuda was an island infamous for storms and the danger of the navigation of the seas around it, long before those circumstances were made more the subject of conversation by the lamentable event which occurred in 1609."

The narrative of the shipwreck of Henry May, in 1594, and other authorities, are then cited, which distinctly show that the character of the Bermudas "as a hellish sea for thunder, lightning, and storms," was well known as early as 1596; and it is justly said—

"We see, then, that there is not the least occasion to go to a tract printed in 1610, for the knowledge which Shakespeare evidently possessed of the island of Bermuda and its perpetual storms; and the utmost that can, with any appearance of probability, be said of this passage is, that the introduction of 'the still-vex'd Bermoothes,' may possibly be one of those oblique allusions in which the genius of Shakespeare so much delighted, in which he half discloses a truth, or leads the mind to a particular train of thought without appearing to do so."

Writers are also quoted, who state "that a stormy sea was so associated with the idea of the Bermudas, in the minds of the Poets contemporary with Shakespeare, that this island is for ever being intruded upon us when storms and tempests are their theme"; one of whom, Tymme, in his 'Silver Watch Bell,' speaks of Bermuda as the Island of Devils; "for to such as approach near the same, there do not only appear fearful sights of devils and evil spirits, but also mighty tempests with most terrible and continual thunder and lightning; and the noise of horrible cries, with screeching, doth so affright and amaze those that come near that place, that they are glad, with all might and main, to fly and speed them thence with all possible haste they can."

Here we would suggest to Mr. Hunter whether the allusion to "the vex'd Bermoothes" by Ariel,

is not susceptible of a new reading, which supports his theory, and would of itself show that Prospero's island could not have been Bermuda. Ariel informs Prospero that the King's ship is in the nook or creek where once he called Ariel up at midnight, "to fetch dew from the still vex'd Bermoothes." It is indisputable that this creek was in the island on which Prospero lived; and if it were Bermuda, would the spirit have said he had been sent "to Bermuda," or "to the Bermudean seas"? The words "to fetch," and "from," mark a distant place, which it was even necessary to describe by name,—(a person in England would not say he had crossed the English Channel, or that he had been on the English coast.) The commentators have not explained Prospero's object in sending for "dew" to "the vex'd Bermoothes," nor to what purpose it was to be applied. But the illustration seems obvious, and if our reading be correct, it would explain why the Bermudean seas were mentioned. Allusions to "dew," in various senses, abound in Shakespeare, and in other writers of his time; and it may have been here used to describe the element out of which Prospero created the storm to wreck Alonso's ship. Knowing that the Bermudean seas produced frightful hurricanes, and wishing to raise a storm of a similar description, Prospero sent Ariel at midnight to that magazine of tempestuous matter for the necessary material. His first address to Ariel is, "Hast thou perform'd to point the tempest that I bade thee?" so that he had previously given his commands on the subject; and it is evident by "to point," that they consisted of minute details, of which the mission to Bermuda may easily be presumed to have formed part.

Mr. Hunter having, in our opinion, both satisfactorily disposed of the Bermudean theory, and accounted for its being entertained, he develops his grand Discovery,—namely, that the island of Shakespeare was LAMPEDOSA, lying between Malta and the coast of Africa.

"If in a story, whether it be one of fact or fiction, we find the persons who are the actors in it carried to a deserted and enchanted island in a stormy sea, and we find such an island precisely in the situation, geographically, which the exigencies of the story require, can any supposition be more reasonable than that we have found the island which was in the mind of the writer, though the name of it may not occur in his work? If, in addition to its geographical position, we find that there are points of resemblance of a peculiar and critical nature, must not the probability be converted into certainty? Now, I mean to show you that such an island there is. The words of Ariel, on which so much stress has been laid by the advocates of the Bermudean theory—

"In the deep nook, where once  
Thou call'dst me up at midnight to fetch dew  
From the still-vex'd Bermoothes,"

so far from serving as an index to the island which afforded what I may call the *prima stamina* of some part of this beautiful work, have proved, like the fires of the same spirit, a deluding light, which has led commentators and critics into seas far remote from those on which, with a story of Italy and Africa before them, their attention ought to have been directed. Their minds have been tossing on the Atlantic, when they ought to have been musing on the Mediterranean, 'peering in maps for ports and piers and rocks,' and, I add, diminutive and obscure islands which lie basking in the sun between Tunis and Naples. Where should Alonso, when he returned from the marriage of Claribel, be wrecked, but on an island which lies between the port from which he sailed, and the port to which he was bound? Did we not know how much still remains to be done in the criticism of these plays, it would be scarcely credible that no one seems to have thought of tracing the line of Alonso's track, or of speculating, with the map before him, on the island on which Prospero and Miranda may be supposed to have been cast. Yet such appears to be the case; for had the spirits of the commentators been attentive to those seas, and to the

many islands with which they are studded, they could scarcely have failed to discover that there was one which has all needful points of resemblance to the island of Prospero, in the general, and withal others so peculiar and so minute, that there can, I think, be no hesitation in admitting that it is the island on which the incidents of the drama take place. The island I mean, is that known to geographers by the name Lampedusa, or Lampedosa, Lipadusa, or Lopadusa. I call your attention, first, to its geographical position. It lies midway between Malta and the African coast. It is therefore precisely in the situation which the circumstances of every part of the story require. Sailors from Algiers land Sycofax on its shores. Prospero, sailing from an Italian port, and beating about at the mercy of the waves, is found at last with his lovely charge at Lampedusa. Alonso, sailing from Tunis, and steering his course for Naples, is driven by a storm a little out of his track, and lights on Lampedusa. In its dimensions, Lampedusa is what we may imagine Prospero's island to have been; in circuit thirteen miles and a half. Lampedusa is situated in a stormy sea. In the few notices which we find of it in the writers contemporary with Shakespeare, the name generally comes accompanied by the notice of a storm. In 1555, Andrew Doria anchored the fleet of Charles the Fifth on the island, after an engagement with the Turks: but a furious gale came on, when several of the ships were driven upon the rocks and lost. Crusius quotes from the narrative of a voyager, who, in 1580, spent four days on the island, during the whole of which time there was one continued storm. Lampedusa is in seas where the beautiful phenomenon is often seen, called by sailors the *Querpo Santo*, or the *Fires of Saint Helmo*. The commentators have told us that these fires are the fires of Ariel. But the very name of the island itself, *Lampedusa*, may seem to be derived, as Fazellus says it is, from *flames* such as Ariel's. Lampedusa is a deserted island, and was so in the time of Shakespeare. The latest English traveller who has visited it, informs us that, 'except a solitary anchorite or two, and a few occasional stragglers, it does not authentically appear to have been regularly inhabited in modern times.'

Several other writers, down to our own times, are quoted, whose descriptions of Lampedusa accord with that of the island to which Prospero, Miranda, and Ariel, have given immortality. But in applying the various facts as evidence of the new theory, enthusiasm is occasionally more conspicuous than judgment. For instance, because the rocks of Lampedusa have cells, of which one is said to have been inhabited by an anchorite, "That cell is surely the origin of the cell of Prospero." Lampedusa supplies Malta with firewood, and Caliban's occupation, as well as the task of Ferdinand, was to collect firewood. Hence Mr. Hunter says:—

"This is not like the invention of a poet working at its own free pleasure. I should seek for an archetype, had I not already found one in the fact, that Malta is supplied with fire-wood from Lampedusa."

Whereas every word on the subject in the Play shows that the fuel was for Prospero's own use, and not that he was a merchant, who exported the commodity!

It is perhaps advisable to notice the geographical claims of Lampedusa to be the island of Prospero, before we enter upon Mr. Hunter's proofs of the fact. We entirely agree with him, that it was "a diminutive and obscure island between Tunis and Naples," for "where," he asks, "should Alonso, when he returned from the marriage of Claribel, be wrecked, but on an island which lies between the port from which he sailed and the port to which he was bound"? But is this the position of Lampedusa? Naples and Tunis lie about N.E. and S.W. of each other, whereas Lampedusa is situated above one hundred and fifty miles to the S.E. of the tract between those places. It is therefore obvious that Lampedusa is as much out of the direct course from Tunis to Naples, as it is possible for one place to be of another. Here, then, the geographical evidence fails; and a ship going from Tunis to Naples

could only have been driven to Lampedusa by a strong gale of many days duration from the N.W., of which, however improbable, we admit the possibility. But Lampedusa is a most unlikely place to have received Prospero and Miranda, when they were set adrift on the coast of Italy; and equally so, to have been the exile of the witch Sycofax, when sent out of Algiers. We entreat Mr. Hunter, before he relies on the position of Lampedusa, to do, what he blames the older commentators for omitting,—cast his eyes once more on a chart of the Mediterranean, and then tell us how a boat committed to the mercy of the wind and sea, at any place between Genoa and Naples, should have reached Lampedusa; or avoided grounding on some one of the innumerable islands on her passage? Did it come through the Faro of Messina, or round the westernmost point of Sicily?

We are, therefore, compelled to reject the geographical proofs in favour of Lampedusa, because they are inconsistent with probability, and with all the facts mentioned in the Play itself; and they are only deserving of a moment's consideration, because it is less improbable that Prospero's island should have been Lampedusa than Bermuda.

The source of the idea, that Prospero's island was Lampedusa, may be very briefly explained. Mr. Rodd, the well-known and intelligent bookseller of Great Newport-street, having read Harington's translation of Ariosto, was struck with many resemblances between that version of the poem and 'The Tempest'; and he communicated his opinion to Mr. Hunter, that Shakespeare was indebted either to Ariosto or to the translator, and not, as had been presumed, to Jourdan's account of the shipwreck of Somers and Gates at Bermuda. There are few points of literature upon which so much diversity of opinion will always prevail, as about supposed imitations in the writings of Poets. A fertile fancy, eager to prove the soundness of a new hypothesis, will have no difficulty in finding resemblances, either in thoughts, descriptions, or expressions, wherever similar scenes are described; while to others, who look on calmly, and are wholly disinterested, the proofs of imitation are very faint, and justify no decided conclusion. For ourselves, we confess we do not see strong evidence that Shakespeare wrote 'The Tempest' with Ariosto or Harington's translation in his mind. We believe that all the main incidents of the Play were derived from another source, of which no trace has yet been found; and we are more disposed to agree in what Mr. Hunter afterwards says of its real origin, than in almost any other of his opinions. After giving his reasons for supposing that Harington's translation of Ariosto's storm, and not Jourdan's tract, was in Shakespeare's thoughts, he thus states his grounds for concluding that Prospero's island was Lampedusa:—

"The most remarkable circumstance remains to be mentioned. The storm described by Ariosto occurs in the same seas in which the voyagers in *The Tempest* are wrecked. The circumstances of this part of the story required two islands. Ariosto's geography is a little indistinct, or perhaps affected with the license given to a poet. The island with the steep cliffs which receives Roger, is an island of the Mediterranean, inhabited only by a hermit. It seems not to be actually Lampedusa, but it has the attributes belonging to Lampedusa, which is the other island of this part of the poem, called by its softer name Lipadusa;

"Muta ivi legno, e verso l' Isoletta  
Di Lipadusa l'ra ratto levarsi."—*Canto xliii. St. 150.*

which Harington adopts:

"This Lipadusa is a little isle  
Distant from Africk shore some twenty miles."

And again:

"Near Lipadusa's steep and craggy cliffs."

Hofmann, whom one rarely consults without finding something that is valuable, informs us that the Italian sailors call Lampedusa *La Casa d'Orlando*, in respect

of its connexion with this work of Ariosto. We trace further resemblances between these two great poets. When Rogero reached the island,

"Upon the rock with much ado he crawl'd,  
And sat upon the level ground in th' end;  
When, lo, an aged man, whose head was bald,  
And beard below his girdle did descend,  
(That was a hermit that did there inhabit)  
Come forth to him in godly reverent habit."

This is the hermit of Lampedusa, a kind of prototype of Prospero; and, as we proceed, we are conducted to the hermit's cell, which we find like the cell of Prospero, sheltered by a grove of trees:

"The cell a chapel had on th' eastern side:  
Upon the western side a grove or borie,  
Forth of the which he did his food provide,  
Small cheer, God wot, wherewith to make folks merry."

The evidence in favour of Lampedusa stands therefore nearly thus:—

Shakespeare wrote the *Tempest* with Ariosto in his mind;

One of the islands mentioned by Ariosto is Lampedusa;

Therefore Prospero's island was Lampedusa: which corollary is strengthened by the descriptions of Lampedusa agreeing with that of the island in 'The Tempest.'

Though Mr. Hunter says the island that received Rogero "seems not to be actually Lampedusa, but it has the attributes belonging to Lampedusa, which is the other island of this part of the poem;" and though he calls Ariosto's geography "a little indistinct,"—he nevertheless describes the hermit of the island to which Rogero swam, as being "The Hermit of Lampedusa;" thus inferring that the two islands were identical. Now nothing can be more clear than that the rock ("*un scoglio*" as it is always called in the original) on which the hermit dwelt, was not Lampedusa. Three Pagan kings being at Lipadusa (or Lampedusa) send a challenge to Orlando, who was at Biserta, and who accepts it, in the names of Brandimart, Olivero, and of himself. Rogero sets certain kings at liberty, and embarks with them from Marseilles for Biserta, but next morning they discover a rock, "Ecco dinanzi un nudo scoglio," and expecting to be wrecked, the crew quit the ship, and the boat, being swamped, all are lost except Rogero, who reaches the rock and finds a hermit, by whom he is kindly treated and converted to Christianity. Orlando and his companions go to Lampedusa, fight with, and overcome the Pagan kings; but in the combat, his friend Brandimart is killed and Olivero wounded. Rinaldo joins Orlando and Olivero at Lampedusa, and they embark together for Sicily for the purpose of interring Brandimart, and finding a physician for Olivero's wound. They accordingly arrive at Girgenti where Brandimart is interred; and, in reply to Orlando's inquiries after a physician, the pilot informs him of the miraculous powers of a hermit who lived "on a rock not far remote,"—

"Disse ch' era di la poco lontano  
In un solingo scoglio uno Eremita."

They sailed immediately, and reached the rock next morning—

"Vider lo scoglio al sorgere de l'aurore,"

where they found both the hermit and Rogero, who soon after accompany them to Marseilles. It is thus evident that the hermit's rock was a distinct place from Lampedusa, and that the cell, and other descriptions, which Mr. Hunter supposes Shakespeare to have adopted, belong not to Lampedusa, but to this nameless rock. The accounts given of its position by Ariosto are inconsistent with each other, for in one place it is said to have been within less than a day's sail of Marseilles, and in another place about the same space from Girgenti. In the former case the rock would not agree with the position of Prospero's isle, as truly described by Mr. Hunter, viz., between Tunis and Naples; but in the latter it would accord perfectly, and may there-

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fore be supposed to have been Maritimo, or one of the other numerous small isles or rocks off the west point of Sicily. With respect to Lampedosa, the simple fact that Shakespeare nowhere mentions the name of Prospero's island, is strongly against his having intended it for Lampedosa; and if he were indeed indebted to Ariosto's narrative, it is far more probable that he adopted the nameless rock, giving to it the locality last assigned to it in the poem, namely, off the western coast of Sicily, which would be perfectly consistent with every incident in the play. Since so much is said about Lampedosa, it is singular that Mr. Hunter does not notice the passage in which Ariosto adverts to Archbishop Fulgoso's objection that his description of the island did not agree with its actual state, and accounts for the discrepancy by attributing it to the earthquake.

Mr. Hunter asks triumphantly, "Am I claiming too much, if I say that the Bermudean theory of the origin of this play is lost for ever?" to which interrogatory the answer is, "It is indeed lost; but was it ever established by competent, or even respectable authority?" Mr. Hunter himself observes:

"I must also add, for on this point they appear to have been misunderstood, that no editor of Shakespeare has ever gone so far as to represent the island of Bermuda as actually the scene of this play, but only as having suggested the idea of a stormy, deserted, and enchanted island, with a few (a very few) of the subordinate circumstances."

But who that has read 'The Tempest,' as it ought to be read, can agree with Mr. Hunter, when he says:—

"I must, however, do the old critics the justice to say, that till this discovery (such I may call it), no island, as far as I know, had a better claim to be regarded as the island of Prospero, than Bermuda."

Mr. Hunter's next position is, that "instead of being the latest, as is generally supposed, the 'Tempest' is one of the earliest works of this great master."

"It is now time that I should transport you into those fresh fields and new pastures of which I spoke, the fields of Elizabethan history, poetry, and literature, which you have so successfully cultivated, while I endeavour to ascertain the true period of the Poet's life to which we are to refer this splendid production. I assume that we are no longer bound to limit our inquiry to the period between 1610 and 1616, the year of the Poet's decease, but that we are at liberty to fix the date of the play early or late in his dramatic life, in the reign of Elizabeth or the reign of James, according as the evidence shall at last determine us. I need not remind you that this play, like many others, remained long in manuscript before it was printed: that we have no entry of it on the Stationers' registry, nor any direct proof of its existence till we find it occupying the first place in the edition of the plays which was published by Heminge and Condell, his fellow-players, in 1623, seven years after the author's decease. I have already announced to you what is my own impression, that this play is an early work; but I lay no stress on the circumstance, that when the plays were first collected into a volume, the first place was assigned to *The Tempest*. It is difficult to discover a principle on which the arrangement was made: and it is not difficult to divine other reasons beside priority of composition for the place assigned to it. Yet it may seem strange that if it were the last work, it should first meet the eye in such a collection. As little attention should I be inclined to give to what some persons have imagined they perceived in this play—intimations of its being a Poet's farewell, as if the retirement of Prospero were a kind of adumbration of the retirement of Shakespeare himself from the practice of the more innocent magic with which he had so long enchanted his countrymen. Others have discerned in the style and sentiment marks of a period beyond the maturity of a Poet's life. But we see how extremely dubious and uncertain reasoning of this kind is, when we observe how often the most plausible conclusions of this kind have been dispipated by the discovery of some decisive evidence

from without, fixing limits which no reasoning from the style or sentiments can justify any person in overleaping. I suspect that all questions respecting the chronological order of these plays must be decided by testimony, apart from any consideration of the general style and sentiments."

It would occupy far too much space to extract the facts, or rather reasonings, from which it is inferred that the 'Tempest' was an early, and not a late composition; but among the chief, is the identity (in Mr. Hunter's opinion) of the 'Tempest' with the 'Love's Labour Won,' mentioned as one of Shakespeare's comedies, by Meres, in 1598; but of that identity there certainly is nothing amounting to proof. There is, however, sounder reasoning in the following passage:—

"On the whole, then, I submit that we have Meres' testimony to the existence of *The Tempest* as a play of Shakespeare, in 1598. It would add some strength to this conviction, could any remarkable correspondences be shown between *The Tempest* and the *Love Labours Lost*, a title to which the other title was evidently meant to be respondent. That *Love Labours Lost* is an earlier play is manifest from its abounding so much in rhymes, which is the case with those other plays which were wholly or partly his, produced indisputably when first he became a writer for the stage. But there is one remarkable correspondence which seems to point to such a connexion between these two plays as we should expect to exist between two with corresponding titles, and it is this; that the stories of these two plays (and it is the case with them alone of all the romantic dramas) have a certain relation to events and characters of real history, so that we are able to fix a chronological period near to which the time of the action must be referred. In connexion with this, there is the further correspondence, that of all the romantic dramas of Shakespeare, *The Tempest* and *Love Labours Lost* are the only two for which no origins of the stories have yet been discovered. I venture to predict, that when the origins are found, they will be found in one and the same volume; some very rare book of romances or dramas in the literature of France, Navarre, Spain, or Italy."

Mr. Gifford denied that Ben Jonson meant to satirize Shakespeare in the Prologue to 'Every Man in his Humour,' in 1596; but Mr. Hunter thinks the allusions are unquestionable; and among them he imagines he finds 'The Tempest' noticed; and that would, of course, be evidence of its existence in that year. He adds, "To the spring or summer of 1596, I am disposed, on a full consideration of the whole evidence, to assign it." Against the conjecture of its early composition, there is the remarkable fact, that a passage of Florio's translation of Montaigne, which was not printed until 1603, is so closely adopted in 'The Tempest,' as to leave no kind of doubt that it was seen by Shakespeare. To all the other objections to its being an early play, Mr. Hunter has given conclusive answers; and this, the gravest of all, is thus plausibly met:—

"That Shakespeare had read this passage of Montaigne is most evident, and also that he had read it in this particular translation which Florio had made. An additional interest has been given to the circumstance by the recent discovery of a copy of Florio's translation with the name of Shakespeare in it as the possessor, written by the Poet's own hand. But the date in the title-page of that book is 1603, and no earlier edition is known. How, then, can this use have been made of the passage in a play written in 1596? There are two ways of evading this difficulty. First, though we know of no earlier edition of this translation (and it is improbable that there is any earlier edition of it as a whole), it is by no means improbable that a portion of it may have appeared some years before in one of the smaller tracts of Florio, of which there were many, more perhaps than are now known to exist; and in that portion of it the passage in question may have occurred. Or, secondly, this speech of Gonzalo's may have been added after the original appearance of the play, as there is reason to think was the practice of Shakespeare. Alterations he certainly made from time to time. As in *The*

*Merry Wives of Windsor*, a reply of Pistol was once,

"I will retort the sum in equipage:"

and afterwards:

"Why then the world's mine oyster,

Which I with sword will open."

In a passage of *Hamlet*, we have three readings, all indisputably Shakespeare's, namely, 'godly ballad,' 'pious chanson,' and that expression which has been so ill explained by the commentators, 'pious chanson.' In both these plays there have also been large additions made after the work had been deemed complete. As *Othello* existed in 1602, the passage about the new heraldry of hands not hearts must have been superinduced, if it allude to the red hand of Ulster, which was given as an augmentation to the members of the new order of baronets; and this can hardly be doubted. It might, then, be said that this passage, in which we have words of Florio, was superinduced some time after the play was publicly performed. But I propose to meet the difficulty, and not to evade it. It is true that no printed edition of this translation, or of any part of it, is known of an earlier date than 1603. But it is also certain that the translation was made several years before; for as early as 1599, license was granted to Edward Blount for the printing of it. And for proof that this is not the earliest period to which we can trace this translation, I have only to refer you to the *Essays* of Sir William Cornwallis, where you will find not only that the translation was made, but that it was divulged before that time. The first edition of these *Essays*, indeed, bears date only in 1600; but they were written some time before, for Henry Olney, a friend of the author, under whose care they were printed, assigns as the reason for publishing an authentic edition, that copies were in so many hands, there was danger lest the work might be printed by some dishonest person surreptitiously. How much time is to be allowed for this multiplication of copies in manuscript, and for the original composition of the *Essays*, it is impossible to estimate with much exactness; but it may fairly be allowed to conjecture that three or four years may have passed, which brings us near to the date we have assigned to *The Tempest*. But in what year soever Cornwallis wrote his *Essays*, in or before that year had Florio made his translation of Montaigne."

We regret we cannot follow Mr. Hunter through his proofs; but he seems fairly entitled to conclude, "that Shakespeare may not improbably have seen portions of Florio's Montaigne in 1596."

Little room is left us to notice the Remarks on the Plot and principal Characters of 'The Tempest'; and we fear that not a few of the suggestions on the Characters will excite a smile. Mr. Hunter thinks the 'Love Labours Lost' and 'The Tempest,' if, as he supposes, it was identical with the 'Love's Labour Won,' hang together: he infers that—

"There is some one book to which Shakespeare had recourse for the plots of both these plays: a book of romances (or possibly, but less probably, a book of dramas), in which the stories were offsets from the events of genuine history, or those events mingled with fictions, the creations of the author's mind; and that therefore these two plays do form but in fact one exception to the rule that Shakespeare, we know, wrought on plots prepared to his hand."

Our respect for Mr. Hunter, and our gratitude for the pleasure his tract has afforded us, prevent our making any remarks on his astounding theories about the Characters of the Play; for who can hear with gravity that the monster Caliban, whom Mr. Hunter says was more like a tortoise than any other animal, could have derived his name from one of the three Magi?

Mr. Hunter's conjectural emendations must not pass without notice, because, if he really labours under the difficulty he pretends, respecting some words and passages, he will thank us for illustrating them. Of the well-known exclamation of the boatswain—

Blow till thou burst thy wind, if room enough—

he says,—

"A meaning may undoubtedly be extracted from the words, but it is poor for Shakespeare, and it has

gained little by the labour of the commentators. Is it not possible that this passage, as originally written by Shakespeare, may have approached nearer than it does at present, to a line in Ariosto?

"To steer out roomer, or to keep aloof."

The precise meaning of the word *roomer*, I do not profess to know, and I have consulted persons acquainted with the language of sailors, in vain. Possibly—it is a mere conjecture—the original editors of this wholly posthumous play found the word as unintelligible as it appears to us, and gave us the present reading, still keeping near in sound to what was written and spoken."

And he adds in a note—

"Respecting this word *roomer*, which I have not found in any dictionary, Harington was conscious, when he used it, that he was using a word which few would understand; for he adds a marginal note to the effect, that he speaks the language of mariners, and will be understood only by them. The only other place in which I have found it, is in that very remarkable collection of sea-terms made by Taylor, the sculler on the Thames."

The whole passage is quoted; but we shall give only the line in which the word occurs, and its antecedent:—

Clear your main-brace, let go the bolein there;  
Port, port the helm hard, *roomer*, come no near.

Now there are few words, of which the explanation may be so easily found as *room*, in the boatswain's speech; and *roomer* in Harington and Taylor. When the boatswain says,—

Blow till thou burst thy wind, if *room* enough,

he addresses the Wind, and tells him in vulgar but characteristic terms, he may *blow till he bursts his wind*, provided there be *sea room* enough for the ship to lie-to in, without danger of a lee-shore, which is almost the only apprehension of seamen in a storm. Taylor, in the passage printed by Mr. Hunter, has a very similar expression—

Haul up the boat, in spit-sail there afore.  
Blow Wind, and burst, and then thou wilt give o'er.

"Roomer" is an obsolete sea term for "freer," "fuller," in opposition to "luff" and "close," and was also used for "going free," or nearly before the wind. It occurs with a quotation from Harington on Bishops, but not with a very accurate definition, in Nares' Glossary; and Richardson, in his new Dictionary, has given two quotations, which fully illustrate the meaning.

In the explanation of trash, "trash for overtopping," he was anticipated by Chalmers; and to the proposed reading of "young samphire," for "young scameles," few will assent; for the adjective seems clearly to refer to an *animal*; and we agree, with him, that the passage had better remain as it is. The word was, probably, a provincialism, of which the meaning will some day be discovered. Of "porthrights" he remarks, it would not be easy to find this word in any other writer than Shakespeare, and perhaps, as a substantive, he may be correct; but as an adverb, it was used by Sidney, Spenser, and Dryden. "The green sour ringlets," which does not require elucidation, and the "rack behind," are left much where they were. The remainder of Mr. Hunter's criticisms are chiefly confined to letters and punctuation. In the proposition to retain "butt" for "boat," because Prospero and Miranda may have been set afloat "on a large wine butt cut transversely," Mr. Hunter can scarcely be serious.

Though we have been compelled to dissent from many of Mr. Hunter's opinions, his tract contains so much curious learning, so many facts of interest and novelty, illustrative of the literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, that it is fully entitled to the attention of all who love Shakespeare and the drama; for even where, in our judgment, the writer is undoubtedly mistaken, his theories are propounded with ingenuity and sincerity.

*The Works of the Rev. Sydney Smith.* Vol. IV. Longman & Co.

We laud the gods for the Rev. Sydney Smith. He is one of those rare and happy temperaments, whose especial mission it is to test opinion, and to moderate the pretension of that most pretending of all human associations, the joint-stock company of Noddledom. What Channing is to the democracy of America, with his sober, sustained, and clear dialectic, Sydney Smith is to the tribes of Noddledom, with his irony, his jeering, and his felicitous illustrations. It is his, pre-eminently, to abash those who are case-hardened against grave argument, and to wring the withers of the very numerous and respectable class, who

Safe from the bar, the pulpit, and the throne,  
Are touched and shamed by ridicule alone.

There are thousands upon thousands whose intelligence is not to be awakened to the perception of wrong by the force of an elenchus, unless like a wasp it carries a sting in its tail,—who perceive nothing false that is not at the same time obviously absurd. To all such, Sydney Smith is an Apostle: be they as bigotted and as obtuse as they may, he breaks through the barriers of their inapprehensiveness, presents them with a vivid and well-defined idea, and leaves them without "a word to throw to a dog." Could the people of these realms (that singularly disintegrated aggregate of discordant sects, factions, castes, corporations, and interests, by courtesy called a nation,) be redeemed from their prejudices, their hypocrisies, and their sophisms, from their plausibilities, and their downright nonsense, and brought back into the sphere of a manly common sense—Sydney Smith is just the man to have helped them to the change. His wit, like the spear of Ithuriel, has started many a concealed misleader of the people; and the false, and the fraudulent, who in their panoply of speeches and pamphlets thought themselves syllogism-proof, have been pierced through and through by the lightest of his well-pointed jokes. But *Dis aliter visum*: no forty Sydney power can effect this revolution. Truth and falsehood, morality and immorality, have become, too palpably, affairs of pounds, shillings, and pence; opinions are not only marketable commodities, but the immediate signs of profit and loss; and we never yet saw the man who, having taken up a vicious conclusion, could be either argued or laughed out of his opinion, when it carried a lucrative consequence as its appendage. As long as the notion prevails, that all the world can thrive better by cheating all the world, than by honest industry, and that the sure road to public and to individual prosperity is, for every man to do his best to beat down and plunder all other classes and conditions in society, for the emolument of his own, "bell, book, and candle, will not drive them back." Cobbett gave to his countrymen the epithet of "most thinking," in the bitterest irony; and perhaps there may have been some point in the sarcasm; still we shrewdly suspect that a perverted will has a great deal to do with the defect; and that when common sense is so often found absent without leave, it would, if diligently traced, be discovered to have absconded in the company of another absentee—common honesty.

There was a moment, within our recollections, when things seemed to be taking a better turn; when the writer under consideration might have flattered himself that his *naso suspendis adunco* process would prove effectual, and that if motley was still to continue the only national wear, it would at least have been made up of a better selection of hues: but if he ever really entertained such vanities, he must now be convinced of his mistake. Whatever for the moment was the effect of his remedies, the dog has returned to his—(no matter what); and "hypocrisy and nonsense" have as firm hold of their old "avow-

son," as if he and all such as he had never written a line.

Nevertheless, we repeat it, the gods are to be lauded for the Rev. Sydney Smith. If he cannot work miracles, and drive the plausible from their false position, he is still a wonderful easement, in making their manifold absurdities a jest for the honest and the clear-sighted. His writings are eminently thoughtful and suggestive. He relieves us from the sirocco influence of that atmosphere of verbiage and jargon, in which the literature of the day breathes and has its being. His inexhaustible humour is refreshment to the weary, encouragement to such as are weak in faith; and he enables the faithful to abide their season, and to await the advent of happier contingencies. Welcome then to Sydney Smith's fourth volume, welcome to another avatar of his cogent arguments and unanswerable jokes, his honest earnestness, and his becoming fun.

In our notice of the earlier volumes, we took occasion to remark, that these republications lost nothing of that portion of interest, which literature derives from its temporary and immediate application; and that the author had reproduced few sentiments or trains of reasoning, which are not as applicable to the business of the current hour, as to the circumstances under which they were originally written. Nay, on perusing the greater number of his papers, we have had forced upon us the melancholy conviction, that if bad institutions have been ameliorated, and bad laws repealed, their *animus* still survives—that manly and independent thought is even more rare—and that quackery is more rampant, more impudent, and less questioned than ever. Upon a rather pungent remark on the compatibility of exalted clerical station with the decent practice of many unchristian vices, Mr. Smith has appended this note: "bold language for the year 1808." With reference to the powers and the habits of Attornies-general, the fact may be so; but if we are to take into the account those persecutions, "far worse to bear," which the independent assertor of unpalatable truths encounters from a misguided public, it was safer to thwart the career of humbug in the year 1808, than in this the youngest of the children of time, 1840: and we are perfectly satisfied, that there are many passages in the volume before us,—as true, as honest, and as necessary to be printed, as ever were written,—which the author would scarcely have now ventured to put forth for the first time, if he regards a broil with his spiritual superiors, or the cowardice of society, against which all his powers of mirth and railery would be but a feeble protection.

Among the papers especially applicable to the times in which we live, we may instance that on the Society for the Suppression of Vice, in its bearings on all sorts of associations for interfering with the administration of the law, or controlling the habits and sentiments of the people, by a bustling, busy, well-intentioned, but fanatical minority. The following remarks, replete with sound sense and true Christian feeling, cannot be too seriously meditated:—

"To their authorized and legal correctors, mankind are, on common occasions, ready enough to submit; but there is something in the self-erection of a voluntary magistracy which creates so much disgust, that it almost renders vice popular, and puts the offence at a premium. We have no doubt but that the immediate effect of a voluntary combination for the suppression of vice, is an involuntary combination in favour of the vices to be suppressed; and this is a very serious drawback from any good of which such societies may be the occasion; for the state of morals, at any one period, depends much more upon opinion, than law; and to bring odious and disgusting auxiliaries to the aid of virtue, is to do the utmost possible good to the cause of vice. We regret that mankind are as they are; and we sincerely wish, that the



species at large were as completely devoid of every vice and infirmity, as the President, Vice-President, and Committee, of the Suppressing Society; but, till they are thus regenerated, it is of the greatest consequence to teach them virtue and religion in a manner which will not make them hate both the one and the other. The greatest delicacy is required in the application of violence to moral and religious sentiment. We forget, that the object is, not to produce the outward compliance, but to raise up the inward feeling, which secures the outward compliance. You may drag men into the church by main force, and prosecute them for buying a pot of beer,—and cut them off from the enjoyment of a leg of mutton;—and you may do all this, till you make the common people hate Sunday, and the clergy, and religion, and every thing which relates to such subjects. There are many crimes, indeed, where persuasion cannot be waited for, and where the untaught feelings of all men go along with the violence of the law. A robber and a murderer must be knocked on the head like mad dogs; but we have no great opinion of the possibility of indicting men into piety, or of calling in the quarter-sessions to the aid of religion. You may produce outward conformity by these means; but you are so far from producing (the only thing worth producing) the inward feeling, that you incur a great risk of giving birth to a totally opposite sentiment. \* \* To compel men to go to church under a penalty, appears to us to be absolutely absurd. The bitterest enemy of religion will necessarily be that person who is driven to a compliance with its outward ceremonies, by informers and justices of the peace. In the same manner, any constable who hears another swear an oath, has a right to seize him, and carry him before a magistrate, where he is to be fined so much for each excommunication. It is impossible to carry such laws into execution; and it is lucky that it is impossible,—for their execution would create an infinitely greater evil than it attempted to remedy. The common sense, and common feeling of mankind, if left to themselves, would silently repeal such laws; and it is one of the evils of these societies, that they render absurdity eternal, and ignorance indestructible. Do not let us be misunderstood: upon the object to be accomplished, there can be but one opinion;—it is only upon the means employed, that there can be the slightest difference of sentiment. To go to church is a duty of the greatest possible importance; and on the blasphemy and vulgarity of swearing, there can be but one opinion. But such duties are not the objects of legislation; they must be left to the general state of public sentiment; which sentiment must be influenced by example, by the exertions of the pulpit and the press, and, above all, by education. The fear of God can never be taught by constables, nor the pleasures of religion be learnt from a common informer."

In the same paper, too, we find a felicitous exposure of the self-forgetfulness of those, whose reforms strike only at the enjoyments of the poor. The theme may be thought "something musty;" but the vice or error at which it aims, is still as rampant as ever, and a reference to it in this place is neither supererogatory nor futile: besides, the passage is strikingly illustrative of the author's method, and in his happiest vein:—

"The real thing which calls forth the sympathies, and harrows up the soul, is to see a number of boisterous artisans baiting a bull, or a bear; not a savage hare, or a carnivorous stag,—but a poor, innocent, timid bear;—not pursued by magistrates, and deputy-lieutenants, and men of education,—but by those who must necessarily seek their relaxation in noise and tumultuous merriment,—by men whose feelings are blunted, and whose understanding is wholly devoid of refinement. The Society detail, with symptoms of great complacency, their detection of a bear-baiting in Blackboy Alley, Chick Lane, and the prosecution of the offenders before a magistrate. It appears to us, that nothing can be more partial and unjust than this kind of proceeding. A man of ten thousand a year may worry a fox as much as he pleases,—may encourage the breed of a mischievous animal on purpose to worry it; and a poor labourer is carried before a magistrate for paying sixpence to see an exhibition of courage between a dog and a bear! Any cruelty may be practised to gorge the stomachs of

the rich,—none to enliven the holidays of the poor. We venerate those feelings which really protect creatures susceptible of pain, and incapable of complaint. But heaven-born pity, now-a-days, calls for the income tax, and the court guide; and ascertainment the rank and fortune of the tormentor before she weeps for the pain of the sufferer. It is astonishing how the natural feelings of mankind are distorted by false theories. Nothing can be more mischievous than to say, that the pain inflicted by the dog of a man of quality is not (when the strength of the two animals is the same) equal to that produced by the cur of a butcher. Haller, in his Pathology, expressly says, that the animal bitten knows no difference in the quality of the biting animal's master; and it is now the universal opinion among all enlightened men, that the misery of the brawler would be very little diminished, if he could be made sensible that he was to be eaten up only by persons of the first fashion. The contrary supposition seems to us to be absolute nonsense; it is the desertion of the true Baconian philosophy, and the substitution of mere unsupported conjecture in its place. The trespass, however, which calls forth all the energies of a suppressor, is the sound of a fiddle. That the common people are really enjoying themselves, is now beyond all doubt: and away rush Secretary, President, and Committee, to clap the cotillion into the Compter, and to bring back the life of the poor to its regular standard of decorous gloom. The gambling houses of St. James's remain untouched. The peer ruins himself and his family with impunity; while the Irish labourer is privately whipped, for not making a better use of the excellent moral and religious education which he has received in the days of his youth!"

This is genuine piety, true morality and Christian benevolence; but it is, besides, sound political wisdom. Among the many pieces of high-pressure machinery, which are now at work to widen the breach between capital and labour, and to hurry on revolution, there is none more widely spreading in its untoward influence, than the crusade still in activity against the free agency of the industrious poor,—the fashionable disposition to enact against them oppressively minute and pettifoggish laws, and to enforce upon man habits and practices foreign to their circumstances and associations. Many a Chartist is made by the accumulation of bile and ill-humour, pent up by what has been called a "bitter" observance of the sabbath; and many a poor fellow who would have cheerfully paid his church dues, and doffed his hat to the parson of the parish, has been driven into hostility, by a fine and imprisonment for doing something harmless, or perhaps even laudable.

In the article on Dr. Parr's character of Fox, we meet with another specimen of Smithism, too pleasant to pass over. The reviewer, after a just and a warm eulogium on his author's amiable and splendid qualities, thus proceeds:—

"With all these excellent qualities of head and heart, we have seldom met with a writer more full of faults than Philopatris. There is an event recorded in the Bible, which by men who write books should be kept constantly in their remembrance. It is there set forth, that many centuries ago, the earth was covered with a great flood, by which the whole of the human race, with the exception of one family, were destroyed. It appears also, that from thence, a great alteration was made in the longevity of mankind, who, from a range of seven or eight hundred years, which they enjoyed before the flood, were confined to their present period of seventy or eighty years. This epoch in the history of man gave birth to the twofold division of the antediluvian and the postdiluvian style of writing, the latter of which naturally contracted itself into those inferior limits, which were better accommodated to the abridged duration of human life and literary labour. Now, to forget this event,—to write without the fear of the deluge before his eyes, and to handle a subject as if mankind could lounge over a pamphlet for ten years, as before their submergence,—is to be guilty of the most grievous error into which a writer can possibly fall. The author of this book should call in the aid of some brilliant pencil, and cause the distress-

ing scenes of the deluge to be portrayed in the most lively colours for his use. He should gaze at Noah, and be brief. The ark should constantly remind him of the little time there is left for reading; and he should learn, as they did in the ark, to crowd a great deal of matter into a very little compass:—a valuable suggestion to more authors than Dr. Parr.

One more piece of "most excellent fooling" is levelled at that common-place sophism in political argument, which, for ever refused, is for ever new. It is addressed to the opponents of reform:—

"There happens, gentlemen, to live near my parsonage a labouring man, of very superior character and understanding to his fellow-labourers; and who has made such use of that superiority, that he has saved what is (for his station in life) a very considerable sum of money, and if his existence is extended to the common period, he will die rich. It happens however, that he is (and long has been) troubled with violent stomachic pains, for which he has hitherto obtained no relief, and which really are the bane and torment of his life. Now, if my excellent labourer were to send for a physician, and to consult him respecting this malady, would it not be very singular language if our doctor were to say to him, 'My good friend, you surely will not be so rash as to attempt to get rid of these pains in your stomach. Have you not grown rich with these pains in your stomach? have not you risen under them from poverty to prosperity? has not your situation, since you were first attacked, been improving every year? You surely will not be so foolish and so indiscreet as to part with the pains in your stomach?—Why, what would be the answer of the rustic to this nonsensical monition? 'Monster of Rhubarb! (he would say) I am not rich in consequence of the pains in my stomach, but in spite of the pains in my stomach; and I should have been ten times richer, and fifty times happier, if I had never had any pains in my stomach at all.' Gentlemen, these rotten boroughs are your pains in the stomach,—and you would have been a much richer and greater people if you had never had them at all. Your wealth and your power have been owing, not to the debased and corrupted parts of the House of Commons, but to the many independent and honourable Members, whom it has always contained within its walls."

Among the reasonings of this writer, with which we are the least disposed to coincide implicitly, are those which concern the internal government of the Church, although backed in one instance, as he says, by a very high authority. In his review of the Curates' Salary Bill, he pleasantly tells us—

"Now we are all dead, it may be amusing to state that I was excited to this article by Sir William Scott, who brought me the book in his pocket; and begged I would attend to it, carefully concealing his name; my opinions happened entirely to agree with his."

At the opening of this article we find the following passage:—

"A very great proportion of all the curacies in England are filled with men to whom the emolument is a matter of subordinate importance. They are filled by young gentlemen who have recently left college, who of course are able to subsist as they had subsisted for seven years before, and who are glad to have an opportunity, on any terms, of acquiring a practical familiarity with the duties of their profession. They move away from them to higher situations as vacancies occur; and make way for a new race of ecclesiastical apprentices. To those men, the smallness of the appointment is a grievance of no very great magnitude; nor is it fair with relation to them to represent the ecclesiastical order as degraded by the indigence to which some of its members are condemned. With regard, again, to those who take curacies merely as a means of subsistence, and with the prospect of remaining permanently in that situation, it is certain that by far the greater part of them are persons born in a very humble rank in society, and accustomed to no greater opulence than that of an ordinary curate. There are scarcely any of those persons who have taken a degree in an university, and not very many who have resided there at all. Now, the son of a small Welsh farmer, who works

hard every day for less than 40*l.* a year, has no great reason to complain of degradation or disappointment, if he get from 50*l.* to 100*l.* for a moderate portion of labour one day in seven. The situation, accordingly, is looked upon by these people as extremely eligible; and there is a great competition for curacies, even as they are now provided. The amount of the evil, then, as to the curates themselves, cannot be considered as very enormous, when there are so few who either actually feel, or are entitled to feel, much discontent on the subject."

Now, it strikes us, that there is a little of the "*Maitre Josse*" in this reasoning; and that the reviewer is somewhat indifferent to evils which have not pressed heavily on himself. All the junior members of the Church cannot amuse their leisure in writing *piquant* reviews, which will put "money in their purse," and introduce them into the most delightful literary society, and the most brilliant aristocratical circles. Besides, is there nothing in the sense of the outrageous inequality of the dispensation? nothing in this servile drudgery and slavish subservience which that inequality sanctions? On the other hand, non-graduate clergymen, with pauper salaries, pauper intellects, and pauper feelings, have been usually deemed heavy evils, in a church which does not turn that lowliness to the account of the spiritual instruction and comfort of the lower classes. This, we are aware, is a many-sided question; but on that very account, the sarcasm of its being a "favourite theme with novelists, sentimental tourists, and elegiac poets," is the more inappropriate.

We observe too, that to the speech on Reform, Mr. Smith thinks it necessary to append a long note beginning, "I was a sincere friend to reform; I am so still." We will not say that "*ista excusatio quasi exprobatio est*:" but we would seriously recommend the author to ask himself, whether it will not be so considered by his opponents, and made use of by them as the handle of a paltry triumph at his expense? Will they not taunt him with the imputation that years have made him timid, and riches cooled his popular zeal; the truth being all the while that he is only putting at his friends in place? It is a mortifying fact, that the most trifling gust of passion is enough to put to the rout all the logical powers of the coolest and the brightest reasoners. That such a man as Sydney Smith, accustomed as he is to turn other people's thoughts the seamy side outwards, and to weigh their arguments as in a balance, should need a flapper to remind him, that if he really "adores the present ministry," and thinks "they have done more good things than all the ministries since the revolution," the putting down the yeomanry, and the Post Office exactions, are but poor grievances to quarrel about. Is it at a moment like the present, when all the great interests are jeopardized, for which he has spent his best ink—when that religious toleration is so fiercely attacked, which he has defended through four volumes octavo, and maintained by speech and action through the prime of his useful life,—is it when as he himself says, "there are not a few of the best and most humane Englishmen of the present day who, when under the influence of fear or anger, would think it no great crime to put to death people whose names begin with O' or Mac," [when] "the violent death of Smith, Green, or Thomson, would throw the neighbourhood into convulsions, and the regular forms would be adhered to—but little would be really thought of the death of any body called O'Dogherty or O'Toole:"—that he is to be driven from the career of his humour by trifles, and to take fright, like a half-blind horse, at a wisp of hay lying in his path? We believe the Reverend gentleman to be an honest politician and a benevolent man: but is he above the influence of crotchets? Is he not a little spoiled by worldly

prosperity and high church dignities? Is he not a little tainted by the musky atmosphere of fashionable association! Oh! for the Sydney Smith of the "ninth flat in Bueclough Place."

We entreat our readers' pardon for this little digression; the question of politics enters inevitably into our observations on a political writer; but it is not for the politics we are concerned,—other and higher interests are at stake. From the mere squabbles of parties, literature should keep aloof; but it is deeply interested in whatever influences the intellectual health of the nation, or the general prevalence of a pure and ennobling tone of morality. Of these, Sydney Smith has long been a signal promoter; and we cannot afford to indulge him in what Winifred Jenkins, would call his "picklearities," when they detract from his character for steadiness and consistency, and diminish the permanent utility of his previous labours.

*Statistical Notices on the French Colonies—[Notices Statistiques, &c.] Third Part, containing the French Establishments in India, Senegal and its Dependencies.* Printed by order of M. l'Amiral Baron Duperré, &c. Paris, 1839.

The French colony at Pondicherry in the East Indies, and that on the Senegal in Western Africa, hardly deserve to have the details of their statistics swelled into a portly volume. The former, situate in the most populous part of India, embraces a population of only 167,000 souls. The latter, though long established, and always an object of national predilection, yet reckons but 18,000 subjects, of whom only 140 are Europeans and two-thirds are slaves. It is not our purpose here to enter into the history of French colonization, nor to investigate the causes of its feeble progress. Our chief business with the volume before us is to show how it perverts history and confounds rights, by yielding to the suggestions of national vanity.

One would suppose that works published under the auspices or by the direction of civilized governments, would at least have the merit of perfect authenticity; and that nothing would be averred in them of which ample proofs did not exist in the archives or public offices whence they issued. Cabinets are not properly called upon to write books on history or statistics; and consequently, when they descend to the business of authorship, they are bound to justify that proceeding, by offering to the world historical materials of an important character, as well as original, and worthy of implicit credit. Now, it appears to us that M. Saint-Hilaire's historical account of the French colony on the Senegal contains a great deal more of vain tradition, or even of interested fiction, than ought to have been tolerated in a work published under so high a sanction. It thus begins:—

"The first expeditions of modern nations date from the middle of the fourteenth century; they were undertaken by Frenchmen, inhabitants of Dieppe, and not, as has been long supposed, by Portuguese and Spaniards. In 1365 the merchants of Rouen, allying themselves to the seamen of Dieppe, began to establish factories and commercial stations on the western coast of Africa from the mouth of the Senegal to the extremity of the Gulf of Guinea. It was at that time that the French settlements on the Senegal, on the Gambia, at Sierra Leone, were successively established, and those of the Grain Coast (which bore the names of Little Dieppe and Little Paris); and then also were constructed the French forts at Mina on the coast of Guinea, at Accra and Cormentin."

In support of this unhesitating and affectingly circumstantial statement respecting the French settlements in Western Africa in the fourteenth century, varying so widely from the tenour of received history, M. Saint-Hilaire does not con-

descend to offer a single authority. While the Portuguese navigators, urged on by the indefatigable spirit of the Infant Don Henry, were still unable to double Cape Boyador, the French, forsooth, were carrying on a regular trade with the coast of Guinea. But on what kind of testimony does this singular historical discovery depend? We answer (since M. Saint-Hilaire is here silent) on the worst possible testimony; and by a slight examination of it we hope to convince our readers that the claims which the French seem disposed to rest on their prior discovery of Guinea, do not deserve a moment's serious consideration.

It was in the latter half of the seventeenth century, when the French West India Company having purchased the exclusive trade of Western Africa, were naturally desirous to shut out all other nations from the coast of Guinea, that a petty trader named Villault, sieur de Bellefond, first published, in the account of his voyage to those coasts, (a work of little value,) the history of the early expeditions of the French to Guinea. But he cited no authority, nor did he state whence he derived his information; the amplexness of which, and the connectedness of its details, however, showed that he drew not from oral tradition, but from written documents (if he was not himself the fabricator of the history) calculated to prove that the French not merely visited, but maintained a constant intercourse with, and had settlements on the coast of Guinea, till the wars between England and France, in the fifteenth century, paralyzed for a time the commercial activity of the Normans. The remarkable completeness of this portion of Norman history related by him, renders it more extraordinary that such brilliant achievements should have remained utterly unknown till his time, and unauthenticated ever since. A few years later, Labat repeated Villault's statements, alleging the authority of a manuscript belonging to an individual whose name he concealed, and excusing himself for not citing documents of a public nature, because these had been destroyed by a fire in Dieppe in 1694.

Here then is the entire evidence in favour of those early expeditions of the French to Guinea; no public record of any kind, but a manuscript in private hands, withheld from criticism, and brought into notice just at the time when mercantile companies were paying large sums for the monopoly of the Guinea trade. Can it be doubted that the manuscript in question was a fabrication? Had any proofs of our early trade to Guinea existed in the archives of Dieppe, would they not have appeared in the chronicles of that town published anterior to its bombardment in 1694? M. Estancelin, a Norman gentleman who wrote about seven years ago a volume of researches into the history of the maritime enterprises of the Normans, though he believes in the statements of Villault and Labat, acknowledges that he searched many private collections of manuscripts without finding anything to confirm them. He thinks, indeed, that their evidence is supported by that of foreign writers. Braun, an intelligent traveller, whose voyages to Guinea and Congo were published in the collections of De Bry and Hulsins, states, that at different places on the coasts of Guinea the natives had the tradition that the French were known prior to the Portuguese. Dapper also says something of the same kind. But surely this does not prove that the French navigated to Guinea in the fourteenth century. The native traditions collected in the course of the seventeenth century had reference to the beginning of the sixteenth, when the contest for the prior occupation of the coast was carried on with great vigour by the French and Portuguese.

But now let us consider the arguments against the French discovery of Guinea. It was not



till 1434, that the navigators employed by Don Henry succeeded in doubling Cape Boyador, nor did they reach Cape Verd till twelve years later: or till the Normans, carrying on a brisk trade with Guinea, as we are told, had kept their secret above eighty years. Is this credible? Is it in the nature of trade to remain long secret? or can navigators who have anything to divulge be prevented from entering the service of Princes who are disposed to patronize them? In 1393 a descent was made on the Canary Islands by the Spaniards, under the command of Robin de Braquemont, a native of Dieppe. His cousin, Jean de Bethencourt, subsequently settled on the same islands; and is it not evident that these Norman navigators, whose maritime enterprise has been hitherto so much vaunted by French writers, knew nothing of the coasts of Guinea, or of the profitable trade which their countrymen are said to have been carrying on there for many years? and is not their ignorance of such a trade an unanswerable proof that it had no existence?

The early commerce of the French with Guinea is said to have ceased just at the time when the Portuguese exploration of that region began. The Norman traders were so fond of secrecy, that they chose to fly the coast rather than be discovered there. Certain it is, that twenty years only after the alleged discontinuance of their trade, Cadamosto (in 1455) examined the entire coast of Guinea, and did not find the slightest trace of Little Dieppe or Little Paris, or any other of the numerous French factories; nor did he receive from the natives any intimation of their previous acquaintance with Europeans. In the early part of the 16th century, the French struggled hard to secure a large share of the trade of Western Africa. If our memory do not deceive us, their attempts to possess themselves of the Gold Coast are related in the MS. chronicle of Bernaldez, the Curate of Los Palacios, and friend of Columbus. The political bickerings which arose from these causes, led to no events of sufficient importance to entitle them to a prominent place in history: but in the Despatches of the Venetian ambassadors, (a valuable historical work now in course of publication, and of which one volume has appeared,) we are told that the Guinea trade was the subject of constant dispute between the courts of Portugal and France, the former complaining of the infringement of its exclusive rights. Representations of a similar character were frequently made to the English court, particularly in the reign of Elizabeth, the Portuguese always resting their title to the African trade on the fact of their being the first discoverers. Now, it is remarkable, that in all these discussions, neither the French nor the English ever thought of attacking a title which they were extremely reluctant to acknowledge, or of setting up the prior discovery by the Normans in the 14th century, from which they might either of them derive a claim. In fact, that prior discovery was never dreamt of till 1669, when some cunning speculator contrived by means of Vil-lault, to get the history of it into circulation.

Thus it is evident, that the early expeditions of the Normans to Western Africa are fictions opposed to the general testimony of history, and wanting even plausibility; yet in M. Saint-Hilaire's volume, published by order of the French Minister of the Colonies, those expeditions are assumed to be true for the sake of the national claims founded on them; and in the enumeration of the French Colonies on the western coast of Africa, we find "Grand-Paris and Petit-Paris; Grand-Dieppe and Petit-Dieppe, situate on the coast between Cape Tagrin and Cape Three Points; as well as the forts built in 1382 at Mina, Accra, and Cormentin, on the Gold Coast." It is hardly possible to conceive a

public document putting forth vaguer pretensions (for who can tell the situation of Great or Little Dieppe, &c.?) on weaker, and, critically speaking, more discreditable grounds. The French government will always be able to find room for factories on the coasts of Guinea, without resorting to the artifice of disfiguring history, or adopting fables invented to serve ephemeral purposes.

*A Diary in America.* Part II. By Captain Marryat, C.B. 3 vols. Longman & Co.

WE sit down to notice the second part of Capt. Marryat's work on America, not without a sense that we are about to commit a rash act. The author has favoured us with his private opinion upon the merits of the former series, which, he tells us, is "written in a style that will induce every one to read it," and he adds, in a prophetic strain, that "the second will be read with as much avidity as the first." Then there is a thunderbolt launched at "reviewers in general," which threatens vengeance on the head of any critic who shall venture to dissent from the judgment the Captain has himself recorded. How painful, therefore, is the situation we are placed in! Our applause may be ascribed to fear: our censure may expose us to the wrath of an antagonist, covered with fresh laurels, won in a gallant assault and battery on Miss Martineau,—

Me miserable, which way shall I fly?

The author proposes the question—"What are reviewers in general?"—and answers it as follows:—"Men of a degree of talent below that of the author whose works they presume to decide upon; the major portion of whom, having failed as authors, are possessed of but one feeling in their disappointment, which is to draw others down to their own debased level."

It must be very satisfactory to "reviewers in general" to have their proper place assigned them by a literary Master of the Ceremonies so discriminating and unbiassed as Capt. Marryat. "Reviewers in general" will understand that they are "men of a degree of talent below that of the author they presume to decide upon;" for example, a degree below the author of the 'Diary in America,' when they presume to sit in judgment upon that work.

The author informs the public, moreover, that "his work has been purposely made amusing." A writer so entertaining as he is, and so much in the habit of making amusing books, might surely have left his reviewers to decide how far, in the present instance, he had sustained his reputation. Besides, there is something not much to our taste in the confession that the Diary has been purposely made amusing. The amusement produced by a book of travels ought to flow naturally from the facts, incidents, and traits of character and manners related; and when we hear of such a book having been "made amusing," and made so "purposely," it is impossible not to suspect and fear that this has been achieved at the expense of the United States and their inhabitants. Nothing is easier to Capt. Marryat than to produce an amusing work. His "purpose" in writing of America should not have been to amuse, but to inform and enlighten. There has been a great deal too much laughter, and coarse laughter, at American institutions and habits. Where there are so many important moral and political problems for solution, the vein of 'Peter Simple' is not the most judicious or appropriate. The democracy of America is not to be blown up by squibs, or overthrown by "hits," whether "careless," as in series the first, or "severe," as in series the second. Capt. Marryat's object is "to do serious injury to the cause of democracy." The object may or may not be a good one; but the mode in which it is proposed to carry it into

effect is "amusing" indeed, being no other than "to write a book to be pored over even by milliners'-girls and boys behind the counter, and thumbed to pieces in every petty circulating library." The milliners and apprentices of the Old World, then, are to be the reformers and revolutionists of the New. When Capt. Marryat's Diary shall have been thumbed to pieces in the circulating libraries of England, the democracy of the United States will be mere matter for history, like the republic of Rome or the constitution of Lycurgus.

There is, however, something better than mere entertaining matter in these volumes; and we will say more for our modest author,—there are some chapters which the milliners and apprentices will be apt to pronounce heavy reading, and from which they will revert gladly to 'Jacob Faithful.' For example, the chapters on Aristocracy and Government, from which we must give an extract or two, to place the views of the author on American politics before our readers.

Capt. Marryat holds the people of the United States to be "the least moral people existing." The first cause of this extreme demoralization he states to be "the example of the government," which he describes as "insatiable in its ambition, regardless of its faith, and corrupt in the highest degree." Next he enumerates "the errors incident to the voluntary system of religion," and the "debasing influence of the pursuit of gain;" but the greatest cause of all, in his opinion, is to be found in the extinction or powerlessness of the aristocracy.

"I have said that the people of the United States, at the time of the Declaration of Independence, were perhaps the most moral people existing, and I now assert that they are the least so; to what cause can this change be ascribed? Certainly not wholly to the spirit of gain, for it exists everywhere, although, perhaps, nowhere so strongly developed as it is under a form of government, which admits of no other claim to superiority. I consider that it arises from the total extinction, or if not extinction absolute bondage, of the aristocracy of the country, both politically as well as socially. There was an aristocracy at the time of the Independence. Not an aristocracy of title, but a much superior one; an aristocracy of great, powerful, and leading men, who were looked up to and imitated; there was, politically speaking, an aristocracy in the senate, which was elected by those who were then independent of the popular will; but, although a portion of it remains, it may be said to have been almost altogether smothered, and in society it no longer exists. It is the want of this aristocracy that has so lowered the standard of morals in America, and it is the revival of it that must restore to the people of the United States the morality they have lost. The loss of the aristocracy has sunk the Republic into a democracy—the renewal of it will again restore them to their former condition. Let not the Americans start at this idea. An aristocracy is not only compatible but absolutely necessary for the duration of a democratic form of government. It is the third estate so necessary to preserve the balance of power between the executive and the people, and which has unfortunately disappeared. An aristocracy is as necessary for the morals as for the government of a nation. Society must have a head to lead it, and without that head there will be no fixed standard of morality, and things must remain in the chaotic state in which they are at present."

The author considers the United States as possessing an aristocracy at this moment, although in a state of too great depression or diffusion to enable it to exert any public influence. He says—

"What is the situation of America at present? The aristocracy of the country are either in retirement or have migrated, and if the power of the majority should continue, as it now does, its despotic rule, you will have still farther emigration. At present there are many hundreds of Americans who have retired to the old continent, that they may receive that return for their wealth which they cannot

in their own country, and, if not flattered, they are at least not insulted and degraded."

And again:—

"As the wealth of America increases every day, so will those who possess it swarm off as fast as they can to other countries, if there is not a change in the present society and a return to something like order and rank. Who would remain in a country where there is no freedom of thought or action, and where you cannot even spend your money as you please? Mr. Butler the other day built a house at Philadelphia, with a *porte cochere*, and the consequence was that they called him an aristocrat, and would not vote for him. In short, will enlightened and refined people live to be dictated to by a savage and ignorant majority, who will neither allow your character nor your domestic privacy to be safe! The Americans, in their fear of their institutions giving way, and their careful guard against any encroachments upon the liberty of the people, have fallen into the error of sacrificing the most virtuous portion of the community, and driving a large portion of them out of the country. This will eventually be found to be a serious evil; absenteeism will daily increase, and will be as sorely felt as it is in Ireland at the present hour."

On the question, whether the United States will ever have an aristocracy, or not, the author of 'Peter Simple' differs from M. Tocqueville. Capt. Marryat observes:—

"I grant that no single people has by its own free will created an aristocracy, but circumstances will make one in spite of the people; and, if there is no aristocracy who have power to check, a despotism may be the evil arising from the want of it. At present, America is thinly peopled, but let them look forward to the time when the population shall become denser, what will then be the effect? Why a division between the rich and the poor will naturally take place; and what is that but the foundation, if not the formation, of an aristocracy? An American cannot entail his estate, but he can leave the whole of it to his eldest son if he pleases; and in a few years the lands which have been purchased for a trifle will become the foundation of noble fortunes; but even now their law of non-entail does not work as they wish."

The aristocracy which the author thinks is within the reach of American ambition is not, he informs us, "an aristocracy of title, but one of talent and power, one that will lead society and purify it."

The milliners'-girls would have preferred the growth of an aristocracy of dukes and marquesses; we doubt if they will much exert themselves to establish one of mere "talent and power."

The author then proceeds to state how such an aristocracy as he desires and predicts is to be obtained in a democratic government. The solution of this important problem is "amusing":

"How is this to be obtained in a democracy?—simply by purchase. In a country where the suffrage is confined to certain classes, as in England, such purchase is not to be obtained, as the people who have the right of suffrage are not poor enough to be bought; but in a country like America, where the suffrage is universal, the people will eventually sell their birthright; and if by such means an aristocratical government is elected, it will be able to amend the constitution and pass what laws it pleases. This may appear visionary, but it has been proved already that it can be done, and if it can be done now, how much more easily will it be accomplished when the population has quadrupled, and the division commences between the rich and poor. I say it has been done already, for it was done at the last New York election. The democratic party made sure of success; but a large sum of money was brought into play, and the whole of the committees of the democratic party were brought over, and the whigs carried the day."

An aristocracy that is to "purify society," and cure an extreme demoralization, one cause of which is the debauching influence of the love of money, is to be obtained "by purchase!" The rich few are to buy up the birthrights of the

poorer many; and, while the people are enjoying their mess of pottage, the aristocratic government established by this Jacob-like transaction is to "amend the constitution, and pass what laws it pleases." Capt. Marryat is a political homeopathist. His cure for corruption is corruption. He apprehends his project "may appear visionary!" To us it appears something more objectionable.

The author has not been hurried, by his strong feeling in favour of aristocratic institutions, into the absurd length of denying the existence of anything good and valuable in the condition of society in the United States. He notices the superior "civility" of the lower classes in terms of high commendation:

"I do not think that democracy is marked upon the features of the lower classes in the United States, there is no arrogant bearing in them, as might be supposed from the despotism of the majority; on the contrary, I should say that their lower classes are much more civil than our own."

Good-temper, he tells us, is a national virtue of the Americans, and he traces the source of it expressly to their democratic institutions:

"I have before observed that the Americans are a good-tempered people, and to this good-temper I ascribe their civil bearing. But why are they good-tempered? It appears to me to be one of the few virtues springing from democracy. When the grades of society are distinct, as they are in the older institutions, when difference of rank is acknowledged and submitted to without murmur, it is evident that if people are obliged to control their tempers in presence of their superiors or equals, they can also yield to them with their inferiors; and it is this yielding to our tempers which enables them to master us. But under institutions where all are equal, where no one admits the superiority of another, even if he really be so, where the man with the spade in his hand will beard the millionaire, and where you are compelled to submit to the caprice and insolence of a domestic, or lose his services, it is evident that every man must from boyhood have learned to control his temper, as no ebullition would be submitted to, or unfollowed by its consequences. I consider that it is this habitual control, forced upon the Americans by the nature of their institutions, which occasions them to be so good-tempered, when not in a state of excitement. The Americans are in one point, as a mob, very much like the English: make them laugh, and they forget all their animosity immediately."

Attention and deference to the fair sex is another national trait to which the author bears testimony; and the universal prevalence of which he accounts for by the all-controlling power of public opinion. In the chapter entitled "Travelling" we find the following interesting passage:—

"The Americans are a restless, locomotive people; whether for business or pleasure, they are ever on the move in their own country, and they move in masses. There is but one conveyance, it may be said, for every class of people,—the coach, railroad, or steamboat, as well as most of the hotels, being open to all; the consequence is, that the society is very much mixed,—the millionaire, the well-educated woman of the highest rank, the senator, the member of Congress, the farmer, the emigrant, the swindler, and the pick-pocket, are all liable to meet together in the same vehicle of conveyance. Some conventional rules were therefore necessary, and those rules have been made by public opinion—a power to which all must submit in America. The one most important, and without which it would be impossible to travel in such a gregarious way, is an universal deference and civility shown to the women, who may, in consequence, travel without protection all over the United States, without the least chance of annoyance or insult. This deference paid to the sex is highly creditable to the Americans; it exists from one end of the Union to the other; indeed, in the southern and more lawless states, it is even more chivalric than in the more settled. Let a female be ever so indifferently clad, whatever her appearance may be, still it is sufficient that she is a female—she has the first accommodation, and until she has it no man

will think of himself. But this deference is not only shown in travelling, but in every instance. An English lady told me, that wishing to be present at the inauguration of Mr. Van Buren, by some mistake, she and her two daughters alighted from the carriage at the wrong entrance, and in attempting to force their way through a dense crowd, were nearly crushed to death. This was perceived, and the word was given,—'Make room for the ladies.' The whole crowd, as if by one simultaneous effort, compressed itself to the right and left, locking themselves together to meet the enormous pressure, and made a wide lane through which they passed with ease and comfort. It reminded me of the Israelites passing through the Red Sea, with the wall of waters on each side of them," observed the lady; "in any other country we must have been crushed to death."

The advocate of aristocracy would have done well to have imbibed some of the chivalrous spirit for which he applauds the democracy of the United States. Had he done so, he could not have been guilty of the coarse strain of observation upon the work of Miss Martineau, and, (what is much worse,) upon that lady personally, which runs through the entire Diary. Alluding, in his chapter on Women, to certain opinions expressed by Miss Martineau on the claims of her sex to a share in the conduct of public affairs, the gallant author observes:—

"Miss M. forgets that her prayer has been half granted already, for we never yet had a ministry without a certain proportion of *old women* in it; and we can therefore dispense with her services."

The wit and gallantry of this remark are about equal. In the very next page, the Captain, referring to another opinion of the same lady, from which he differs, informs us that "Miss Martineau is a lady, and therefore it is difficult to use the language which I would, if a man had made such an assertion. I shall only say that it is one of the grossest libels ever put into print." The reader will be apt to think that Captain Marryat finds it easy rather than "difficult" to use coarse language to a lady.

There is an "amusing" instance of bad logic in the author's comments on the remarks by Miss Martineau, which he terms "one of the grossest libels ever put into print." The question at issue is the extent to which the American ladies indulge in the use of wine. Captain Marryat charges Miss Martineau with "implying that intemperance is their general habit," and then he goes on to say:—"so far from it, the American women are so abstemious that they do not drink sufficient for their health. They can take very little exercise; and did they take more wine they would not suffer from *dyspepsia*, as they now do, as wine would assist their digestion." Is Captain Marryat ignorant that *dyspepsia* is one of the most common results of habitual intemperance? We rejoice in the testimony he bears to the freedom of the women of America from a revolting vice; but his argument is a most unhappy one.

For another proof of the author's repugnance to the use of offensive language to a lady, we refer the reader to the following elegant extract from the chapter in reply to an article in the *Edinburgh Review*, which the Captain is pleased to attribute to Miss Martineau: and we shall merely observe that not only is Miss Martineau a "lady," but a lady who, as is notorious, has been for months confined to a sick chamber.

"When I was at Boston, in company with some of the young ladies, the conversation turned upon Miss Martineau, with whom they stated that they had been intimate. Naturally anxious to know more of so celebrated a person, I asked many questions. I was told much to interest me, and, among other little anecdotes, they said that Miss Martineau used to sit down, surrounded by the young ladies, and amuse them with all the histories of her former loves; she would detail to them 'how Jack sighed and squeezed her hand; how Tom went down on his



knees; how Dick swore and Sam vowed; and how—she was still Miss Martineau." And thus would she narrate and they listen until the sun went down, and the firely danced, while the frogs lifted up their voices in full concert."

It is easier, it appears, to contract American faults than copy American virtues. The Captain seems to have "taken out a licence" for abuse during his sojourn amongst the Yankees, and adopted that system (which he deprecates in such strong terms when applied to himself) of making the public press the avenger of private quarrels. "I agree," he says, "with Captain Hamilton in the following remark on the liberty of the press in America: 'Our newspaper and periodical press is bad enough (in England), but its violence is meekness, when compared with that system of brutal ferocious outrage which distinguishes the press in America. In England even an insinuation against personal honour is intolerable—a hint—a breath, even the possibility of a tarnish—such things are sufficient to poison the tranquillity and ruin the character of a public man.' We suppose Captain Marryat does not think this extends to the character of a woman—as he openly introduces to the public Miss Martineau as the writer of the article on his work—and concludes by stating that the whole is a 'tissue of falsehood and misrepresentation.'" He is diplomatic enough to say "this reply is not addressed to Miss Martineau, but to the *Edinburgh* reviewer:" and then, under cover of attacking the reviewer, calls her a "land-lubber," tells us a tale of a jack-ass, which he facetiously speaks of as her "ancestor," and makes use of many other equally gentlemanlike epithets and delicate allusions. We would seriously advise the Captain to stick to his maritime novels—in the cock-pit and on the quarter-deck, he may display all his coarse humour to his heart's content.

In his chapter on the newspaper press, we find a collection of paragraphs from the lower order of American journals, carefully selected for their excessive coarseness and vulgarity. We cannot help thinking, that the author bestowed too much of his time in hunting out specimens of this description, especially when we recollect that his own natural bent is to the like ornaments of style and verbiage. These Americanisms are infectious, and the Captain had a natural predisposition to take the distemper. The following simile is one that might excite the envy of a Yankee editor. Speaking of democracy and the *Edinburgh Review*, the author says of that periodical, that "it has been frothing, fizzing, hissing, and bubbling about it, like a tea-kettle in a passion, for these last twenty years." Like elegancies of style are to be found in every chapter,—here is another over which we have just stumbled:—

"When I arrived at Washington, I thought it would be worth while to ascertain the opinion of any of the members of Congress I might meet: and one fine morning, I put the question to one of the *Loco* foco delegates," &c.

It is vastly important, no doubt, to know that it was on "a fine morning" that the Captain proposed his question on the law of copyright, to a member of Congress. An improvement on this would have been to have told us the precise hour of the day by a chronometer, and the height at which the barometer stood, when he consulted the "*Loco* foco delegate."

It is possible that there may be much truth in the general remarks on the newspaper press of the United States, but the author has mixed up his strictures upon it with so many allusions to injuries sustained by himself, that we must receive his opinions (as he admonishes us to receive those of Miss Martineau,) "with great caution." One cannot but suspect, that "the young man whose name is not worth mentioning," who spread the report that the Captain had

insulted Mr. Clay, and the paragraph in the *Baltimore Chronicle* cited in the note at the end of the chapter, exercised a more than due influence on the criticisms. Let us remark also, that it would have been better for the credit of the author's own observations, if he had not so liberally interspersed them with passages of the same tendency from Tocqueville, Captain Hamilton, and Mr. Cooper: it looks as if the design was to collect everything that had ever been said, in the way of censure, upon the press of America. Captain Marryat speaks in flattering terms of the periodical literature of the United States; he pronounces the reviews and magazines "on a par with those of this country." One cannot help suspecting, that he has been more gently handled by the writers of this department, than by those of the daily press. Speaking of American wives, the Captain says, they are "much too good for their husbands," and then adds,—"I have no hesitation in asserting this; and should there be any unfortunate difference between any married couple in America, all the lady has to say is—The fact is I'm much too good for you, and Captain Marryat says so!" It is evidently the writer's object to make a party for himself amongst the women of America, against the men. If the married ladies are such "good wives" as he allows them in general to be, the project will not be a successful one. He gives the following account of the state of married life in the United States. The reader will not fail to observe, that the same picture would serve tolerably well to describe the married state in the great commercial towns of this country:—

"All the men in America are busy; their whole time is engrossed by their accumulation of money; they breakfast early and repair to their stores or counting-houses; the majority of them do not go home to dinner, but eat at the nearest tavern or oyster-cellar, for they generally live at a considerable distance from the business part of the town, and time is too precious to be thrown away. It would be supposed that they would be home to an early tea; many are, but the majority are not. After fagging, they require recreation, and the recreations of most Americans are politics and news, besides the chance of doing a little more business, all of which, with drink, are to be obtained at the bars of the principal commercial hotels in the city. The consequence is, that the major portion of them come home late, tired, and go to bed; early the next morning they are off again to their business. Here it is evident that the women do not have much of their husbands' society; nor do I consider this arising from any want of inclination on the part of the husbands, as there is an absolute necessity that they should work as hard as others if they wish to do well; and what one does, the others must do. Even frequenting the bar is almost a necessity, for it is there that they obtain all the information of the day. But the result is, that the married women are left alone; their husbands are not their companions, and if they could be, still the majority of the husbands would not be suitable companions, for the following reasons. An American starts into life at so early an age, that what he has gained at school, with the exception of that portion brought into use from his business, is lost. He has no time for reading, except the newspaper; all his thoughts and ideas are centered in his employment; he becomes perfect in that, acquires a great deal of practical knowledge useful for making money, but for little else. This he must do if he would succeed, and the major portion confine themselves to such knowledge alone. But with the women it is different; their education is much more extended than that of the men, because they are more docile, and easier to controul in their youth; and when they are married, although their duties are much more onerous than with us, still, during the long days and evenings, during which they wait for the return of their husbands, they have time to finish, I may say, their own educations, and improve their minds by reading. The consequence of this with other adjuncts is, that their minds become, and really are, much more cultivated and refined than those of their

husbands; and when the universal practice of using tobacco and drinking, among the latter, is borne in mind, it will be readily admitted that they are also much more refined in their persons."

Captain Marryat draws a singular inference from the superiority of American ladies to their husbands:—

"Now a man so wholly engrossed in business cannot be a very good companion if he were at home; his thoughts would be elsewhere, and therefore, perhaps, it is better that things should remain as they are. But the great evil arising from this is, that the children are left wholly to the management of their mothers."

How it can be a "great evil" that American children should be left to the management of their mothers, when their mothers are so much superior to their fathers, we leave it to the reader's ingenuity to find out.

We are constrained to leave unnoticed several chapters of a political and statistical nature. There is not sufficient novelty, either in the matter or manner, to justify us in pressing them on the reader's attention; and we are sure that we shall be excused for referring anybody desirous of learning the Captain's views of the Canadian question, to his own pages. In brief, the pervading faults of the "*Diary in America*," are its egotism and personality. The author seems to consider his arrival in the United States as an event of about as much importance in their history as the declaration of their Independence,—a day

In golden letters to be set

Amongst the high-tides in the calendar.

The book is indeed much more unquestionably "light" than "amusing." The style is careless and vulgar; the matter ill-arranged; the prejudices displayed strong; the reasoning egregiously loose and inconsequent. A better title for the work would be, 'Captain Marryat in America.'

*Report of a Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on the Emancipation of Negro Slaves in the French Colonies.*—[*Report fait au nom de la Commission, &c.*] By M. Alexis de Tocqueville. Paris.

THE literary distinction which is attached to the name of an author, whose previous work has earned for him more consideration in England than we give to any other French political writer of the day, might suffice to draw our attention to the official publication now before us. We have great pleasure in witnessing M. de Tocqueville's commencement of a political career, to which he brings the strong intentions of an enlightened benevolence, and the clear perceptions of his acute and logical understanding. But these qualities are exhibited with a very peculiar degree of interest in a cause to which the English nation has devoted such splendid and unremitting exertions. In 1835, within a few months of the first operation of our own Slave Emancipation Act, some of the veteran Abolitionists, and in particular Mr. Zachary Macaulay, passed over to the French metropolis, where the last active years of that excellent man's life were spent in urging upon the attention of the French cabinet the imitation of the great experiment which the legislature of Great Britain had just tried in our own colonies. In a case in which difficulties so novel, and dangers so numerous, were to be overcome, we cannot blame the prudence of the French statesmen, who, with the fullest desire to follow the liberal course which England had boldly adopted, thought fit to wait until some few years should have tested the wisdom and feasibility of our mode of Emancipation. Instructed by the experience derived from the failure of our apprenticeship system, and encouraged by the removal of all serious apprehensions of physical danger, the Chamber of Deputies named a Committee in the course of the last session, whose Report was

drawn up by M. de Tocqueville; and the conclusions of it, which we shall presently lay before our readers, warrant us in the belief that France will not allow any unnecessary delay to intervene between the discussion and the execution of this great measure.

M. de Tocqueville shows, in the introductory part of his Report, that the greatest obstacle to the abolition of slavery, is slavery itself: the greatest difficulty which attends the transformation of the slave into a moral, religious, and responsible agent, is that slavish education which has trained him in ignorance of the ties and restraints of marriage, of the precepts and truths of religion, of the duties and the rights of the freeman.

He would not then be reasonable to suppose that we shall succeed in destroying in a state of servitude those vices to which a state of servitude naturally and necessarily gives birth. The thing is without a precedent in the world: the experience of freedom alone—of freedom long restrained and guided by an energetic and moderate power, can suggest and impart to man the opinions, the virtues, and the habits which befit the citizen of a free country. The Committee is of opinion that all the means which might be employed to prepare the negroes for emancipation must be very slow in their effect, and very limited in their utility. We are convinced that nothing is to be gained by delay; and we have been brought to consider whether delay be not actually perilous. Slavery is one of those institutions which last a thousand years, if no one thinks of inquiring why it exists; but which it is almost impossible to defend for a day after that inquiry has once been made.

The feeling that the abolition of slavery is inevitable, has hardly been more powerfully expressed in the French Chamber and in Europe, than by the Colonial Councils of government, and in the French colonies. The example of the British Islands, some of which are within sight of Guadeloupe and Martinique, has of course powerfully contributed to accelerate this state of opinion, which pervades not only the white planters, but the slaves themselves.

It is easy to conceive that this situation is full of dangers, and that it already engenders a part of those very evils which the abolition of slavery may produce, without effecting any of the good which the state of freedom will bring with it. It is no longer a fixed and stable rule, but a temporary and disturbed condition; the revolution which some would prevent, is begun. The planter, who sees the approach of this inevitable revolution day by day, has no prospects, and, consequently, no foresight. He undertakes no new speculations because he is not certain that he can ever reap the fruit of them. He improves nothing, because he is sure of nothing. He bestows but little care on what will perhaps not always be his own. The uncertainty of their fate weighs down our colonies with an immense burden: it checks their intelligence and depresses their courage.

To these causes may, in part, be attributed the pecuniary embarrassments of the French colonies, and the depreciation of colonial property.

If this state of things were to last, it would ruin the whites, and leave but little hope of ever arriving at a peaceful and happy emancipation of the blacks. By this gradual and involuntary relaxation of the bond of slavery, the Negro accustoms himself, little by little, to be feared: he readily attributes the suggestions of humanity in his favour to the dread which he inspires: he becomes a bad slave, without acquiring any of the virtues of a free-man: he loses that traditional obedience and respect which the magistrates will need to claim, when the authority of the master is abolished. Humanity and morality have frequently demanded—and sometimes perhaps have imprudently demanded—the abolition of slavery; but, at the present time, political necessity compels it. It is better that a firm and prudent hand should hasten the crisis and govern it, than that the colonies should be so weakened and wasted by the anticipation of it, as to be incapable of supporting it when it takes place. The Committee is unanimously of opi-

nion, that the time is come to take active steps for the final abolition of slavery in our colonies, and its inquiries have been directed to find out the best means of emancipation. Two general systems have naturally occurred to the mind. The first consists in allowing the slaves to arrive one by one at a state of freedom, by a series of slow progressive measures; the second, in the simultaneous emancipation of the whole body. The Committee, after mature deliberation, is unanimously of opinion, that the simultaneous method of emancipation presents fewer drawbacks and fewer dangers than the gradual method.

The following are the principal reasons in support of this opinion, which is in conformity with that of a former Committee of the Chamber, and of the more enlightened planters themselves. These arguments are presented with all the peculiar neatness and force of M. de Tocqueville's style of reasoning.

1. When the mother country emancipates all her slaves at once, by the direct and palpable effect of her sovereign will, the state may easily impose on each slave, in return for the new rights it confers on him, certain peculiar and stringent obligations; and it may subject them all to a temporary condition, which gradually accustoms them to make a good use of their freedom. As the change is complete, and the whole of society is metamorphosed at once, it is not impossible to introduce new maxims of government, a new police, new public officers, and new laws. As these laws are made for every one, no one is peculiarly afflicted by them, and no one resists them. The mother country is prepared to make this effort, and the colonies to submit to it. But when, on the contrary, the slaves are emancipated, one after another, by a concurrence of circumstances which appear to be accidental, the great social change escapes notice. At every individual manumission, the society of the colony is altered in its essence, without manifesting any change in its external appearance. As the freed-men continue to form a separate class, they require special enactments, peculiar magistrates, an exceptional government—and these innovations are always difficult, often dangerous. It seems more simple and less embarrassing to adhere to the common law of the country. But the common law of a slave country is not, in all respects, like that of our own—to imagine so, would be a serious error. Whoever has travelled in a slave state may have observed, that the constituted authorities take part in much fewer concerns, and provide for vastly fewer contingencies, than in those countries where slavery is unknown. They are not required to repress vagrancy or idleness, since the labourer is detained in a fixed place, and held to his task. Society makes no provision for the young, the aged, or the sick; these burdens are annexed to all servile property. Most of the laws of our police would be useless, for the discipline of the master is substituted for them. In slave countries, the master is the chief magistrate; and when the state has established, maintained, and regulated the use of slavery, the greater part of its task is accomplished. The legislation of a slave country has never contemplated the existence of a great number of free men, who are, at the same time, poor and debased. There is no preparation to relieve their necessities, repress their turbulence, or correct their vices. The freedman, consequently, may easily abuse his independence, by leading an idle, vagrant life. At first, this evil is little felt, but it increases with the number of those emancipated, till we find ourselves at length, and without having foreseen it, in the presence of a whole population of ignorant, wretched, and disorderly men, who have nothing of the free, but their vices, and whom it is henceforward impossible to convert into moral and obedient beings.

2. The system of gradual emancipation has moreover the effect of deterring the freedmen from the inclination to work. The idea of labour in slave countries is indissolubly united to the idea of servitude. Labour is not only avoided there as an irksome effort, but shunned as a disgrace; and experience teaches, that almost wherever there are slaves who work, the free men remain idle. As long as the gradual emancipation is incomplete, a part of the black population remains bound to forced labour. Labour is still the stamp of slavery, and each negro

who attains his freedom is naturally led to regard a state of idleness as the most pleasant and the most glorious privilege of his new condition. The necessary result of gradual emancipation is therefore to surrender every individual in succession, to whom it applies, to indolence and want as the concomitants of freedom.

Some of the inconveniences which are here pointed out were felt under the apprenticeship system of the British colonies; and in particular, the abrupt termination of that temporary condition left most of the local governments utterly unprovided with those legal provisions for the repression of vagrancy, idleness, and intemperance, and for the celebration of marriage and other civil formalities which are necessary in all civilized communities, but which were peculiarly required by a population then first emerging from a state of bondage to one of civil and individual responsibility.

The Report proceeds to recognize the claim of the colonists to such an indemnity as will bear them harmless through the great change to which their interests are exposed, whilst it asserts the necessity of such a rule of guidance as may secure the moral success of the experiment.

France, gentlemen, is not bent on the abolition of slavery, in order to drive her planters ruined from the colonies, or to plunge the negroes into a state of barbarism: it is her purpose, not only to give freedom to men who are deprived of it, but to constitute civilized, industrious, and peaceful communities. Nor will the country refuse the government the means which are necessary to this end. France will bear in mind, that the liberty, the happiness, and the life of three hundred thousand of our fellow creatures are here at stake, who all speak our language, obey our laws, and are looking to us at this moment as their liberators or their fathers. If the country thinks that the time is come to regenerate and to save those remote communities which are the work of France, but whose destinies France has herself endangered by introducing slavery on their shores, it will not condescend to risk the success of so great and holy a cause from motives of economy.

To this exhortation of the Committee, the example of England may possibly add some weight; but, in most other respects, the line of policy adopted by our own legislature is more fruitful in warnings of what is to be shunned, than in lessons of what is to be pursued. M. de Tocqueville passes the whole history of these measures in review with great fairness; but he appears to have been somewhat imperfectly provided with the best and most recent data on the subject; and he hardly adverts to the questions of wages, and the supply of free labour, which are now so interesting to all who are connected with the West India colonies, or who have watched the progress of this stupendous work of transforming, in less than half a life, a million of human beings from slaves into free agents. M. de Tocqueville censures with truth the unwise inadequacy of the means provided for teaching the blacks to be free in our colonies; but he agrees with the Committee in maintaining that some kind of intermediate condition, analogous to our apprenticeship, is indispensable.

A plan of emancipation was laid before the Committee; and although a discussion of its details would be premature, its principal features may be communicated to the Chamber.

As soon as slavery is abolished, all the existing relations between the blacks and the whites would be substantially changed. The bond which connected them would be entirely destroyed. The state alone would then become the guardian of the freed population; and it would exercise the power of granting at pleasure, on certain fixed conditions, the services of the blacks to the planters—the use of the means of discipline would remain in its hands—Labour would no longer be gratuitous. There are about 250,000 slaves in our colonies; two-thirds of whom, or about 166,000, between the ages of 14 and 60, are capable of habitual and productive labour. It



appears from documents which have been laid before us, and from inquiries we have made, that, supposing the state to claim a low rate of wages for the labour of these 166,000 labourers, it could afford not only to cover the interest of the indemnity, and open a sinking fund for the capital, but also to make over to the labourer a portion of his daily hire. The labourer would likewise enjoy the use of the Saturday, and of a plot of ground sufficient to maintain him; under these circumstances, he would be quite at his ease. The children might be bound to the planter under indentures which would secure to him their services till they were twenty-one. We would also take care of the aged and the sick, under certain regulations to be laid down for the purpose.

The absence of these last-mentioned provisions has been severely felt in some of our own colonies. As long as the planter had a direct interest in the health of his slaves and the propagation of his negroes, means were provided for the relief of the sick, and the care of new-born infants, which were placed in nurseries on the estate, whilst the mothers returned as soon as possible to their work. These poor creatures of course bore their families in utter ignorance of the duties of mothers; and the consequence has been, a frightful mortality among the "picanninies," or negro babies, since they have been consigned to the care of these ignorant mothers only. Lying-in hospitals should have been provided on a large scale; and we believe, that considerable exertions have been made in some of the colonies to supply so imperious a want: but these provisions would be made more certainly and efficiently by the government than by the planters.

In these matters, it is well to throw upon the government the responsibility as well as the power. When the state thus becomes the guardian of the former slaves, it enjoys full liberty to use all the means which may most effectually contribute to prepare them for the full exercise of their independence. It may impose such conditions as it believes to be indispensable, and it may prescribe certain tests before it completely abandons them to govern themselves. It may take all suitable measures to extend instruction amongst them, to improve their morals, and to favour marriage effectually. As these measures emanate from the state, and not from the former master, they would not give rise to those feelings of hostility and mistrust whose disastrous effects have been seen in the British colonies; [?] but being imposed on the white man as the condition of the supply of labour, and on the black as the price of his freedom, they would be readily accepted, and exactly performed.—The Committee is equally favourable to the principle of wages. Wages are a just compensation for the sacrifices of the state—useful to the black man himself, since, independently of the advantage he derives from it, they teach him the value of labour, and raise labour in his estimation. The absence of wages is the mark of slavery. The system of wages must, lastly, remove the unjust suspicions which the planters have sometimes entertained towards the government of the mother country. It obviously connects the pecuniary interest of the state with the maintenance of productive labour in the colonies; and the wages must, consequently, give the colonies the surest pledge of the exertions which the mother country will make to supply labour.

The Committee therefore recommend—

1st. That in the session of 1841 a bill be introduced to fix the epoch of the general and simultaneous abolition of slavery in the French colonies. 2nd. This bill will determine what indemnity is due in consequence of the measure, and will secure the repayment of it to the state, by means of a deduction from the wages of the emancipated negroes. 3rd. The same bill will provide the groundwork of regulations fitted to insure the labour, to promote the instruction and morality of the blacks, and to prepare them for the habits of free labour.

The application of these principles will of course give rise to a great deal of discussion, which it would be premature for us to enter upon here: but we cannot avoid remarking, that the term *wages* is not strictly applicable to a mode of remuneration which leaves the negro

so little freedom, and, in fact, only supports him by an *allowance* of money instead of the slave's allowance of provisions. Whatever precautions may be taken to regulate the excess of freedom, or to meet the demand for labour, the rate of wages cannot be permanently affected by any law but that which governs them all over the world—viz. the numbers and the wants of the working population. In our colonies, the real difficulties which have arisen may all be referred to one source (and here we borrow the language of a very high authority on the subject), viz. a deficiency in the amount of the labouring population, arising naturally and inevitably out of the sudden transition from slavery, the most simple of all conditions, to the more complex system which prevails in a free community. Emancipation has severed the tie which bound the master and the slave when they were in juxtaposition; and, by removing them apart, has left a void space, which must be filled up by a middle class. Until an additional population can be acquired, this middle class will necessarily be composed of drafts from the agricultural labourers, reducing immediately the amount of disposable labour in the colony. We are not aware what proportion the slave population of the French islands bears to their extent and natural fertility; nor do we know whether, after the abolition of the present state of things, the wages of free labour would sink so low as in Barbadoes, or rise so high as in Guiana or Trinidad. But these questions must meet with more attention in France than they have hitherto received, before the proposed measures can with safety be executed; and the more so, as the French are wholly destitute of those resources which we may derive from other parts of our vast colonial empire, and from the affinity of our language and laws with those of the United States, whence no inconsiderable black immigration to our colonies may confidently be expected to take place. The French islands have nothing to rely on but the commerce of the mother country, and the judicious measures which the government may frame and enforce.

#### OUR LIBRARY TABLE

*Sporting Excursions in the Rocky Mountains*, by J. K. Townsend, Esq. 2 vols.—The critics, we observe, are unanimous in their commendation of this work. One of them indeed, the editor of the *New Sporting Magazine*, has evidently a suspicion that it is a reprint, and shrewdly observes, "that the absence of a preface goes to assure us, that any explanation respecting the author or the book, were very likely to break the charm of novelty." Another dwells at some length on the proof offered by the title-page, of the aristocratic assumptions and tendencies of the *Yankees*, the *Sporting Excursions of the Esquire* being, in truth, he tells us, a mere trade adventure. In justice to ourselves, and in proof that we do not overlook these interesting novelties, and in justice to Mr. Townsend, we must observe, that the work was originally published in Philadelphia, as 'A Journey across the Rocky Mountains, by J. K. Townsend,' and a dozen columns of review and extract appeared, months since, in the *Athenæum* (No. 614)—that Mr. Townsend, though engaged on this occasion by certain merchants, to report to them on the feasibility of establishing a settlement on the Oregon, is a well-known and zealous ornithologist, and was accompanied by Professor Nuttall, of Harvard University, a distinguished botanist—that he is a gentleman in every way entitled to the silly and meaningless distinction of Esquire, though he did not choose to assume it.

*Observations on Medical Education*, by Richard Jones, &c.—Here is another testimony added to the long muster-roll of witnesses who have deposed to the difficulty of putting down quackery, and establishing a high standard of merit among medical practitioners. Under the strong control of public opinion, almost every college and corporation connected with the pursuit of medicine, has done something, more or less, to raise the qualification for degrees and licences to

practise; and we believe very little remains to be effected for that specific end. The real difficulty is not merely that the legally qualified should be well educated, but that persons without qualification should be prevented from fee-taking. This is a point on which the patients must be consulted: and they will not suffer their civil right, to be poisoned by whom they please, to be restricted. When, however, we say that very little remains to be effected for education, we refer less to the actual state of medicine, than to the inability of the best combined systems of examination to protect the public. Any given examination can be met by what is called cramming; and any given amount of theoretical book knowledge can be realized, without ensuring either the natural or the acquired fitnesses for actual practice. Zeal, industry, conduct, and natural capacity cannot be ensured by any system, nor can any law prevent the regularly-licensed practitioner from adopting any system of quackery which promises to make his fortune by a short royal road. In all these matters, "the patient must minister to himself." The great pervading cause of the flourishing condition of quackery, is public ignorance. This cannot be too often repeated, or announced in too strong terms. If the public will not protect themselves, by learning to understand their own position, colleges and prescribed courses of study will do little for them. When everything is done which law can effect, the lever on which the question of zeal and skill turns, is their immediate reward. As long as the paymaster follows fashion, a plausible exterior, or any extensive and accidental claim to preference, passing over merit, from inability to detect it,—practitioners will generally consider the possession of that merit as a troublesome and costly thing, to be dispensed with; and will give their time and attention to flatter prejudice and mislead ignorance. Unless, then, we raise the standard of general education, the improvement of professional examinations will be but "a lame and impotent conclusion." *Au reste*, the specific nostrum of the volume before us, is the addition of an apprenticeship to an established practitioner, after theoretical studies, as a ground of licence; and we are inclined to think that the voluntary adoption of such an appendage to education would be of great advantage: but, as a legal obligation, it is open to objection. The terms of admission to practise are already too onerous, for the rewards held out to the mass of practitioners. Were they rigorously insisted on, there would be a deficient supply for the remotest markets; and, consequently, there is already a strong disposition, both with the public and the profession, to shirk them. It would serve, at best, only to make a fee for the senior, who, having "touched the siller," would leave the student to follow his own devices, taking the least possible trouble himself to earn the money.

*List of New Books*—Alexander's (Sir J. E.) *Life of the Duke of Wellington*, Vol. II. 8vo. cl. 14s.—Duthy's *Hampshire*, royal 8vo. cl. 15s.—Letters of Horace Walpole, complete edition, Vol. I. demy 8vo. cl. 14s.—Turnbull's *Austria*, 2 vols. 8vo. 24s.—Innisfree Abbey, a Tale of Modern Times, by D. J. Moriarty, 3 vols. 12mo. 18s.—Family Library, Vols. LXX. and LXXI.—Ruins of Cities, 2 vols. cl. 10s.—De Foe's Works, Vol. III. *Life of Captain Singleton*, 12mo. cl. 5s.—The Forerunners, new edit. 8vo. cl. 6s.—Gregory's Letters on the Christian Religion, 7th edit. 8vo. cl. 7s. 6d.—An Essay on the Oxford Tracts, 12mo. cl. 4s.—Jones's Observations on Medical Education, 8vo. cl. 4s.—Milman's Poetical Works, 3 vols. 8vo. cl. 18s.—Lushington's *Life of Lord Harris*, 8vo. cl. 13s.—District Visitor's Manual, 12mo. cl. 4s. 6d.—Letters on Unitarianism, in Reply to the Rev. T. Heat, by the Rev. H. H. Piper, of Sheffield, 12mo. cl. 5s.—Sermons, by the Rev. C. F. Child, 8vo. cl. 10s. 6d.—Ferguson's Interest Tables, 12mo. 8vo. cl. 5s.—Logan's Compendium of the Law of Marriage, crown 8vo. cl. 5s. 6d.—Bickersteth's Treatise on Baptism, Christian Family Library, Vol. XXXII. 5s. cl.—Illustrations of the Corporal and Spiritual Works of Mercy, Part I. oblong 4to. 8vo. cl. 5s.—Logan's Compendium of the Laws of England, &c. Part II. "Marriage," 8vo. 8wd. 2s. 6d.—Gems of Literature, or Tales of all Times, 18mo. cl. gilt, 2s. 6d.—Strive and Thrive, by Mary Howitt, 18mo. hf-bd. 2s. 6d.—Vates, or the Philosophy of Madness, with Outline Illustrations by Landseer, Part I. 2s. 6d. 8wd.—Memoirs of Sarah Jane Isabella Alexander, by her Father, 18mo. cl. 2s. 6d.—Every Day Duties, addressed to a Young Lady, by M. A. Stodart, 12mo. cl. 4s. 6d.—Eginton Tournament and Gentleman Unmasked, by Peter Buchan, 8vo. cl. 5s.—Oliver and Boyd's Edinburgh Almanack, 18mo. bd. 4s.—New Grammar of the French Language, &c. by M. de Fivas, new edit. 3s. 6d. bd.—Stafford's German, French, and English Conversations, 12mo. bds. 2s. 6d., with Introduction, 5s.—Stafford's Introduction to German, &c. Conversations separate, 12mo. cl. 2s. 6d.—Sixth Report of the Royal Cornwall Polytechnic Society, 8vo. 8wd. 2s. 6d.—Braz's Latin Testament, new edit. 3s. 6d.—Evans's Hints to Young Christians, 18mo. hf-bd. 1s. 6d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL for DECEMBER, kept by the Assistant Secretary, at the Apartments of the Royal Society,  
By order of the President and Council.

1839. DEC.	9 o'clock, A.M.			3 o'clock, P.M.			Point at 9 A.M., deg. Fahr.	External Thermometers.				Rain in inches, Read off at 9 A.M.	Direction of the Wind at 9 A.M.	REMARKS.
	Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.	Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.		Fahrenheit.		Self-registering.				
	Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.		Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.			5 A.M.	3 P.M.	Lowest	Highest			
○ 1	29.708	29.700	43.4	29.734	29.726	43.2	38	01.1	37.7	39.8	37.6	38.4	E	Thick fog throughout the day, as also the evening.
M 2	29.882	29.874	41.9	29.892	29.886	42.3	36	01.5	38.8	42.3	37.2	39.4	E	A.M. Thick fog. P.M. Overcast—deposition. Evening, Light fog.
T 3	29.960	29.952	42.9	29.948	29.940	42.2	38	01.9	38.8	39.4	35.8	39.4	S	Light fog throughout the day, as also the evening.
W 4	29.830	29.822	39.8	29.800	29.794	40.2	34	02.4	34.3	37.8	32.0	34.6	.038 NNW	Fine—light clouds & wind throughout the day. Evening, Fine & clear.
T 5	30.096	30.090	39.0	30.152	30.146	39.7	33	01.8	36.7	37.3	33.3	37.2	SW	(A.M. Light fog and wind. P.M. Light clouds and wind. Evening, Cloudy—light rain.
○ F 6	30.364	30.360	40.3	30.356	30.350	40.2	35	01.2	36.7	36.2	36.0	37.3	W	A.M. Thick fog—deposition. P.M. Overcast—deposition. Ev. The like.
S 7	30.332	30.324	39.3	30.278	30.270	40.5	33	01.1	34.9	39.7	34.2	35.3	E	(A.M. Light fog—deposition. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Evening, Fine and clear—frosty.
○ 8	30.096	30.090	37.6	30.018	30.012	37.8	32	01.1	35.4	35.7	33.4	35.9	E	Overcast—light brisk wind throughout the day, as also the evening.
M 9	29.830	29.824	37.3	29.730	29.724	37.6	31	01.8	34.9	36.3	34.7	36.0	NW	Overcast—deposition throughout the day, as also the evening.
T 10	29.606	29.600	37.4	29.586	29.580	37.8	31	02.3	34.2	36.0	34.2	36.7	E	(Overcast—light wind—frosty throughout the day. Evening, Overcast—deposition.
W 11	29.664	29.656	39.0	29.386	29.382	40.4	37	01.3	42.4	43.7	34.3	43.0	E	(Overcast—light rain and wind. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Evening, Overcast—light rain.
T 12	29.248	29.242	42.0	29.142	29.138	43.6	39	02.1	44.8	46.8	41.9	45.3	.083 E	(A.M. Overcast—brisk wind. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Evening, Overcast—light rain.
F 13	29.294	29.288	43.8	29.268	29.262	44.6	40	02.2	43.3	46.3	41.3	46.4	.061 S	(A.M. Fine—light clouds and wind. P.M. Cloudy, as also the evening.
S 14	29.230	29.226	44.7	29.296	29.290	45.7	39	01.9	44.2	46.3	42.3	44.4	.250 S	(A.M. Overcast—brisk wind—heavy rain during the night. P.M. Fine—light clouds—showery. Evening, Fine and clear.
○ 15	29.590	29.584	43.2	29.496	29.492	44.0	36	01.3	39.3	43.2	38.8	40.0	SW	A.M. Light fog—deposition. P.M. Overcast. Evening, Light rain.
M 16	29.696	29.690	43.2	29.846	29.840	43.7	38	00.5	40.3	42.5	38.8	40.5	.122 W	Overcast—light wind throughout the day. Evening, Fine & clear.
T 17	30.074	30.068	42.5	29.964	29.956	43.2	37	01.5	38.3	41.5	37.4	38.8	NE	Fine—light clouds and wind throughout the day. Evening, Cloudy.
W 18	29.516	29.508	39.9	29.400	29.394	41.6	32	02.0	35.2	38.7	34.7	35.5	E	(A.M. Cloudy—light brisk wind. P.M. Overcast—light rain and wind. Evening, The like.
T 19	29.418	29.412	42.6	29.412	29.404	44.7	40	01.1	47.7	49.7	34.7	48.4	.333 S	(Overcast—light wind, with occasional rain throughout the day. Evening, The like.
● F 20	29.282	29.276	48.7	29.276	29.272	50.0	46	01.1	51.3	52.8	47.3	51.7	.322 S	(A.M. Overcast—light rain and wind. P.M. Cloudy—light wind. Evening, Overcast—light rain.
S 21	29.552	29.548	49.9	29.532	29.528	50.9	45	01.5	47.3	49.9	46.6	47.7	.180 S	Fine—light clouds throughout the day. Ev. Overcast—light rain.
○ 22	29.550	29.544	53.3	29.462	29.458	52.0	49	00.7	49.9	52.5	46.8	50.6	.061 SW	(Overcast—very fine rain throughout the day, as also the evening, with high wind.
M 23	29.586	29.580	51.8	29.484	29.476	52.8	48	01.5	48.6	49.8	48.4	49.3	.125 S	(A.M. Fine—light clouds and wind. P.M. Overcast—light rain.
T 24	29.244	29.238	53.8	29.306	29.300	54.2	52	02.5	53.4	50.5	48.5	54.6	.288 S	(A.M. Dark heavy clouds—high wind—very high wind throughout the night. P.M. Light clouds. Ev. Overcast—brisk wind.
W 25	29.528	29.520	50.7	29.562	29.554	51.0	48	02.3	47.7	46.5	45.9	49.4	S	Fine—light clouds & wind throughout the day. Ev. Fine starlight night.
T 26	29.732	29.726	45.9	29.500	29.496	45.2	42	01.6	40.7	40.7	38.3	41.2	S	(A.M. Overcast—light fog & wind. P.M. Light rain & wind. Ev. The like.
F 27	29.342	29.334	47.7	29.488	29.480	48.0	45	01.6	47.2	43.8	39.4	47.8	.305 W	(A.M. Overcast—light rain and wind. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Evening, Overcast—light rain.
S 28	29.752	29.746	44.3	29.822	29.816	44.3	40	01.5	35.7	39.4	35.8	36.0	.158 NW	(A.M. Light fog—deposition. P.M. Overcast. Evening, Fine starlight night—sharp frost.
○ 29	30.280	30.272	40.5	30.350	30.344	41.0	33	00.5	33.3	38.2	32.2	33.5	W	(Fine—light clouds throughout the day—white frost. Evening, Fine and clear—sharp frost.
M 30	30.398	30.390	38.2	30.284	30.278	38.3	33	00.6	32.3	39.8	32.0	35.2	SW	A.M. Thick fog—sharp frost. P.M. Overcast—light wind. Ev. Very light rain.
T 31	29.924	29.916	41.0	29.798	29.792	43.3	38	01.3	44.8	47.6	32.0	45.3	S	A.M. Overcast—light wind. P.M. Fine—light clouds. Ev. Overcast—deposition.
MEAN.	29.729	29.723	43.4	29.696	29.690	44.0	38.6	01.5	41.0	43.9	38.4	41.8	Sum. 2.326	Mean Barometer corrected ..... 9 A.M. 3 P.M. F. 29.693 .. 29.659 C. 29.696 .. 29.654

Note.—The daily observations are recorded just as they are read off from the scale, without the application of any correction whatever.

An unusual quantity of rain has fallen this year (1839) compared with those for 1837, 1839:—

In Paris, In Paris, In Paris,  
1837, 17.942 ..... 1838, 19.337 ..... and 1839, 24.504.

#### THE POOR POET TO THE NEW YEAR.

'Tis done!—my weary pen laid by,  
As solemn midnight's hour comes on;  
Rest, aching hand—rest, burning eye,  
Another gasp, another sigh,  
And the Old Year is gone!  
Soft-plaining winds and tender showers  
Make dirges for his dying hours;  
With something of a summer tune,  
Like echoes of the voice of June,  
They hover gently round his bier,  
Thou art forgiven—die!—O melancholy Year!

Dost count thy deeds? dost bid us weep  
Who silent stand to see thee die?  
Rememberest how the brightest sleep  
In the tomb's dungeons grim and deep  
Who watched thy cradle nigh?  
How thy dark footsteps tears have strown  
In palace proud, in cottage lone?  
The broken loves—the bosoms gay,  
Whose eager hopes are left away?  
Lo now! he faints! his life hath fled!  
Peace, angry lip, no more!—'tis sin to chide the dead!

Ring out, loud bells! "The Year is dead!"  
"Long live the Year!" let minstrels sing  
And trumpets shout, and wreaths be shed,  
And revellers drain their goblets red,  
To hail the new-made King.  
Alas! we have been sore oppressed,  
But he is come, and we are blest;  
And long and calm his reign shall be,  
And cares before the legions flee  
Of his bright hours,—till Age forlorn  
Smooths his thin locks, in joy that such a Year was born!

He speaks! and in my breast again  
Leaps weary Hope, his voice to hear;  
"Say'st thou not all my dreams are vain,  
"The purple robe, the golden chain,  
"Are these thy gifts, O Year?"  
Alas! no voice the midnight stirred,  
'Twas mine own beating heart I heard;  
When, wild one! when, from Memory stern,  
Wilt thou her chattering lesson learn?  
When, feverish, cease this Earth to roam,  
And, disenchanted, dwell with sober Thought at home?  
H.F.C.

#### FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

Paris.  
You alluded last week to the recent election at the French Academy, but I must send you a word or two more concerning it, as one of the hardest literary contests upon record. Foremost among the candidates stood, as you know, the author of 'Notre Dame de Paris,' and M. Berryer, the celebrated Carlist orator. The title of the former to the rank of Academician, in his twenty-two octavo volumes prose and verse, is too well recognized with you to claim examination or description from me. M. Berryer rested his pretensions on his parliamentary displays alone. He never wrote, and indeed is represented as incapable of writing anything. He is one of those not uncommon instances of men whose conversational powers are unrivalled, whose passions, when properly heated in debate, throw forth whole avalanches of thoughts—profound—grave—gay—ironical—sentimental—one of those men who "can put a tongue in every stone of Rome, and make it rise in mutiny,"—although in the quiet of their own cabinets, with their robes-de-chambre on, they differ not from the common prosaic herd of mankind. One would think that between such rivals the Academy could have found no difficulty in making its election. But politics had mixed themselves up with the affair, and when politics are in question, the judgment of Frenchmen, no matter what their age or profession, is not to be relied on. Four several times did our learned Areopagites hobble up to the ballot-box, "looking unutterable things," and four times were precisely the same results announced,—i. e., for Berryer twelve votes, for Victor Hugo ten. At length, the session was adjourned and the denouement postponed for three months. Great has been the chafing of the friends of the two parties in the daily papers. "Behold," cry the partisans of Victor Hugo, "on our side are all the more illustrious names of the Academy,—Châteaubriand, De Lamartine, Villain, Guizot, Philippe de Ségur, &c. You can only boast of three that are even respectable, those of Thiers, Cousin, and Mignet, the rest not being worth naming." This desperate struggle was fruitless, because a considerable fraction of the Academy persisted in voting for a certain M. Casimir Bonjour, of whom you probably never heard before, nor did I, save in connexion with an epigram or two. This literary third estate includes the writers of the old philosophical school, who appear to have inherited, if not the talents of the Wise Man of Ferney, at least no inconsiderable portion of the bitter feelings that rankled in his bosom. The party, MM. Jay, Duval, Etienne, &c., had fallen into such disrepute towards the decline of the Empire, that whole bales of their ponderous compilations are said to have been used as a cheaper sort of ballast by the colonial traders of that period—a circumstance which, coming to the ears of Talleyrand, elicited from that inveterate punster, the remark that the editions recently published by several of his learned colleagues were "ad usum Delphini."

\* Since the date of this letter, the death of the Archbishop of Paris has made another vacancy in the French Academy.—Ed.



The vacancy occasioned amongst the members of the Academy of Fine Arts, by the death of the Duc de Blacas, the friend of Charles X., and governor of the Duc de Bordeaux, has been filled up, by the election of M. Dumont, *Chef de Bureau* in the division of the Fine Arts, at the Ministry of the Interior. His unsuccessful rival on the occasion, was the Count d'Houtelot.

The tribe of parrying, fencing, biting, and thrusting periodicals, among which the *Charivari* takes the lead, have been just thrown completely into the shade by the *Guêpes*, a monthly satire, in prose, by Alphonse Karr. Whoever desires to have a peep at the secrets of French fashionable literature, ought, by all means, to read the *Guêpes*, the author of which is himself one of the *métier*, and brings to his task of lashing contemporary folly that quality which ancient rhetoricians recommend so strongly to writers of biography—a sympathy with the persons and times reviewed. Scribe says, "there are three sorts of friends, —the friends we like, the friends we do not like, and the friends we detest." The evident satisfaction with which Alphonse Karr belabours the literary coterie which claims him for its own—the bearded and mustachioed romantic school—prove the possible truth of Scribe's not unphilosophical definition.

Our musical and dramatic public is at this moment in a state of high fever. Mademoiselle Rachel re-appeared, as you know, at the Théâtre Français, amidst the most noisy demonstrations of applause. Unfortunately, the health of our young tragedian is visibly declining. It is said that her father is too eager "to coin her blood to drachmas,"—that the Faculty are likely to interfere, and that they have ordered her to spend a season in Italy, which, it is hoped, will enable her frail form to bear that working of the spirit within, without which the stately works of Corneille and Racine are no better than painted sepulchres. The Minister of the Interior has presented the fair artist with a most suitable travelling companion:—namely, an edition of the French classics richly bound in gold and morocco. Since M. Mommye has been associated with M. Duponchel in the direction of the Grand Opera, the theatre of the Rue Lepelletier has become much more attractive. On Monday last, a pupil of the *Conservatoire*, Mademoiselle Dobré, made her *début* as *Mathilde*, in 'Guillaume Tell,' with great success. Meanwhile, the Opéra Comique has made an important acquisition in the person of Madame Eugène Garcia. While speaking of our musical prospects, I must not forget the lamentable death, by suicide, of our celebrated pianist, Schunke,—and the fatality which seems to pursue the unfortunate family of poor Nourrit,—the only surviving son of that distinguished artist (born in July last, amid all the misery of his father's loss) having been carried off, after a short illness. To this obituary I must add the names of M. de Luz, for nearly twenty years Secretary to the Royal Academy of Music, and of Aloyse Mosser, the celebrated organ-builder of Friburg, whose great master-piece is the renowned organ of the collegiate church of Saint-Nicholas, in that town—where he has died at the age of 69.

A trial, arising out of a supposed case of poisoning, which has recently occupied the Supreme Criminal Court here, is rendered remarkable by a striking application to medical jurisprudence of an important chemical discovery of M. Orfila. The experiments are obviously of great interest and importance, and have attracted the attention of the Academy. It has long been known to medical men, that the presence of arsenic in the stomachs of persons poisoned by that substance was not always to be detected, the greater portion having, perhaps, been rejected, and the remainder absorbed. The evidence, therefore, which science should have furnished to the researches of justice was too often imperfect. It occurred to M. Orfila, that it might be possible to pursue the poison beyond the stomach, and to trace it in the flesh, the nerves, the liver, and the blood. The improved chemical resources of the present day have rendered the detection of arsenic possible, even where it exists in quantities the most minute. Before, however, it could be said that the arsenic so found was the evidence of crime, it was necessary to ascertain that the various organs did not themselves contain that substance naturally. Now the analysis made with this view did indicate the existence of very minute quanti-

ties of the poison in question in the bones,—and left it probable that it existed also in the flesh and viscera, in their normal condition: here, again, therefore, science was at fault. Pursuing his experiments, however, to all their consequences, M. Orfila found that this natural arsenic (if it may be so called) never reveals itself to the same class of tests used for the exhibition of arsenic absorbed by the act of poisoning; and thus a distinctive character was obtained, which renders this evidence safe and conclusive. There were various other circumstances in this particular case which added to the intricacy of the inquiry, and its consequent interest. For example, the body had been long interred; and it thus became necessary to examine, by analysis, if any and what deduction was to be made for the presence of arsenic in the soil where it had lain. M. Couerbe, a young chemist of great distinction, has appealed to the Academy, claiming a share in this discovery,—an appeal which seems unnecessary, M. Orfila himself having openly stated that M. Couerbe first called his attention to the fact of the development of arsenic in the human subject during putrefaction. The subsequent inquiries, which have demonstrated the existence of the metal in bodies whether fresh or decomposed, and all the steps of the experiments which have added the discovery to the sure facts of medical jurisprudence, are M. Orfila's own.

Lewis Hebert, the author of several works on Agriculture and Natural History, has received, on his return from a voyage to the Philippine Islands, the decoration of the Legion of Honour. After encountering a variety of perils and hardships, the narrative of which is forthcoming, Hebert succeeded in penetrating into the heart of the Celestial Empire. He has contrived to bring with him from thence, a quantity of silk-worm eggs, together with some mulberry and tea-tree seed. The latter he is confident of being able to acclimate in Europe,—a most important result, now that your tea-consuming countrymen are at daggers-drawing with the Celestial representative—the mighty Lin.

Our booksellers, like your own, have been of late occupied in the preparation of illustrated editions and splendid trifles, to meet the demands of the season; and the advertising columns of our journals present a tempting display of this sort of intellectual Christmas fare. As exceptions, however, I may mention a work by a retired officer, M. Dugenne, giving, under the unpretending title of 'Panorama de la Ville de Pau,' a lively and anecdotal history, from the earliest days to the present, of the Béarn country, so rich in historical recollections—the country of the Gastons, the heroic Jeanne d'Albret, and her great son, Henri IV., the most beloved name in all the modern Book of Kings,—and the fourth volume of M. Rosseuw Saint-Hilaire's 'Histoire d'Espagne.' (See *Athen.* No. 511.)

The pupils of the Ecole Polytechnique are about to erect a monument to the memory of Dulong; and the Academy of Sciences, Belles Lettres, and Arts of Rouen, of which city he was a native, has announced itself as a contributor. I may also mention, that the Académie Française has elected M. Dupin for its Director, and M. Jay its Chancellor.

Boston.

As you have shown a strong interest in the Penny Postage system, which is about to be adopted in your country, I presume you will be glad to hear that there is some probability of a similar policy being introduced into ours. The present Postmaster General, Mr. Kendall, who is a man of energy, recommended a reduction when he came into office; and from sundry demonstrations at Washington, especially an article in the *Democratic Review*, which possesses a semi-official authority, I think it fairly to be inferred, that Mr. Kendall's views prevail pretty strongly in the administration, and that a bill essentially like yours, will be introduced in Congress so soon as the successful experiment in England shall have demonstrated its practicability. The article referred to furnishes an interesting account of our Post Office system, from first to last. The earliest posts in the country were, it appears, established by William Penn in 1688; and it was not till twenty or thirty years after that any more general system was thought of. Franklin, the first general deputy postmaster of the colonies, was appointed in 1753, with a salary be-

tween him and his confederate of 600l., 'if they could get it.' Franklin made such efforts to improve the condition of the office, that he brought himself in debt 900l., instead of gaining his share of the 600l. Through his exertions, however, letters, which used to take six, were passed from Philadelphia to Boston in three weeks. At that time there were only sixty post-offices in the whole United States. In 1796 there were but seventy-five, with 1,875 miles of post routes, and a nett total revenue of \$31,716, of which Philadelphia contributed one-fourth. In 1798, it took forty days to write from Portland (Maine), to Savannah (Georgia), and receive an answer: in 1813, twenty days; in 1839, twelve days. In 1768, thirty-two days between Philadelphia and Lexington; in 1810, sixteen days; in 1839, eight days. In 1798 there were nine persons employed in the General Post Office; in 1816 fifteen persons; in 1839, one hundred. In 1838 the number of post-offices was 12,519: the amount of postage, \$4,235,077; miles of post-roads, 134,818. Generally there has been a surplus revenue. In 1837 it was nearly \$600,000. Our present letter-postage was fixed in 1816, at the following rates:—

Single letters, 30 miles and under,	6 cents.
80 miles, and over 30 miles,	10 "
150 "	12½ "
400 "	150 "
401 "	25 "

The reduction, if it take place, will probably be to one cent. The measure will be popular, and once started, nothing short of this will satisfy either the parties, or the people.

You had lately an elaborate report before the Asiatic Society,—the purport of which was to show, that England ought and could supply herself with cotton from her own Eastern possessions. This paper has excited considerable attention in the United States, as might be expected. I have personally nothing to say of the scheme, either commercially or politically, but I will give you briefly the argument of an intelligent merchant, of Philadelphia, who speaks from personal observation: it is always well to hear both sides. He takes up three points: 1st. The ability of India to produce the quantity required. 2nd. To produce it at a price as low or lower than other growers; and 3rd. To produce it of a quality equal or superior to other cottons. The first point is admitted, supposing the quantity wanted to be, as stated, 400 millions of pounds. He makes it appear, indeed, that India at present produces over 590 millions,—that is, almost as much cotton as is grown in the United States, and with her dense population she could double or treble it, were a market found. The cotton crop of the United States may be estimated at 1,600,000 bales, each of 400lb.—total 640,000,000lb. India exports about 100 millions of pounds. As to cost, at the average Calcutta rate, it is calculated that cotton would cost on board ship about 5d. per lb., or at a freight of 5l. per ton of 50 cubic feet containing 1,500lb. screwed cotton, the cost landed in England would be 5d. 4-5ths. The average price of Uplands in England may be stated at 8d. per pound, which, with an average crop, would remunerate the planter. But he says that, comparing the qualities and cost of the two articles together, the English consumers consider American cotton the cheaper; and he does not believe that the India cotton can be very soon much improved in quality; and alluding to the Asiatic report, he observes,—"From the manner in which this writer speaks of the business, one might suppose it quite new in the hands of Europeans, instead of which, for the last twenty-five or thirty years, many intelligent and enterprising men have embarked their capitals and energies in fruitless efforts to improve the quality of the article."

Elsewhere on this point he speaks thus:—

"In respect to the success of the experiments tried in the north-western provinces my information disagrees in toto with that of the writer quoted. True, I have seen Upland Georgian growing in a garden not far from Agra in a very flourishing condition, but was informed by the gentleman owning it, who had been for upwards of twenty years an agent of the Hon. East India Company for the purchase of cotton, that all his attempts to improve permanently the quality of the article had failed, owing probably to soil and climate. The first year's growth will generally produce good cotton where American seed is sown, but it rapidly deteriorates in succeeding



years, and very soon is no better than the cotton of the country. This gentleman had used great exertions to clean his cotton thoroughly, and had even imported two American cotton gins, which, however, he did not find to answer, and had returned to the old mode of picking by hand. If cotton of the description named is really grown in any merchantable quantity, it is truly marvellous that a cotton factory at Budge Budge, fifteen miles below Calcutta, on the Hooghly should import raw cotton from the United States to spin into yarn for the consumption of the country. Yet this has twice been done within a few years past."

In reply to other statements, the writer asserts, that "the fine cotton spoken of as growing in the neighbourhood of Dacca is cultivated in so small a quantity, if at all, as not to be worthy of notice; and that the Dacca muslins are now rarely made, English muslins made from American cotton having taken their place even in India." He further asserts that more has been said than facts would justify of the experiments of the Madras government. "When at Madras in the latter part of 1837, I procured," he adds, "a sample of Timmivelly cotton, which is the finest description of India cotton exported, and now send you a portion to judge whether America has to fear rivalry in that quarter. The value of the sample was Mds. Rups. 87 per candy of 500 pounds, or about 5*d.* per pound on board." So much, in few words, for what may be called the American side of the question. It is made one of statistics and physics altogether; the writer goes into no political considerations.

In the literary department we have little that is new, beyond an announcement that Audubon is about to engage in a great work on American *quadrupeds*. With this view he is about to re-enter the western forests as enthusiastic as ever. They have persuaded him, at New York, to exhibit his original ornithological drawings, the entire series of which remains in his possession. This collection, like Catlin's Indian Gallery, is national, and ought to be purchased by Congress. I hope it will be.

Marryat's book was received here quite as well as could be expected. It is full of contradictions and mistakes, and though spirited and good-humoured will by no means bear examination. Take an specimen in what he says of a part of Kentucky:—"It is indeed a beautiful and beautiful land; on the whole, the most eligible in the Union." In another place, "I consider Wisconsin Territory as the finest portion of North America, not only for its soil, but its climate." Again:—"I have been for some time journeying through the province of Upper Canada, and, on the whole, I consider it the finest portion of all North America." The Captain thinks it strange there should be a *poor-rate* in America, but elsewhere he exclaims,—"What cargoes of crime, folly and recklessness do we [the English] yearly ship off to America! America ought to be very much obliged to us;" and he shows that out of 2,246 persons committed to the Boston House of Correction, during a certain period, 1,100 were foreigners; and yet the foreigners in Massachusetts are, to the natives, only in the ratio of about one to fifteen. On the subject of education, again, the Captain is sadly at fault. He undertakes to prove that we are more ignorant than his own countrymen, and establishes with this view a scale of merit among the States, in which Pennsylvania stands the *thirteenth*. Very well! Now let us see what is the condition of things in this thirteenth State. Official documents of the date of March last show that, exclusive of Philadelphia City,

The number of male scholars in the Common Schools is .....	127,677
—the number of females .....	106,024
	233,701

Under the patronage of the State are also eight colleges, having .....	1,509
Forty-three academies, .....	2,420
Fifteen female seminaries, .....	550
Common schools of Philadelphia .....	17,000

Making the number of pupils wholly or partially educated at the public expense .....

255,180

The population of Pennsylvania is rated at 1,600,000. Certainly this is not a very bad case for a State, the thirteenth only in the scale of merit. Once more—on temperance; the Captain is uneasy at the credit we get about this. He says—"That 700 Temperance Societies have been formed it is

true. That 3,000 distilleries have stopped from principle may also be true; but the reports take no notice of the many which have been set up in their stead, &c., &c." Now this is very loose. The reports do notice all these things. It is only the Captain who "takes no notice." For example, the report states, that in New York State the drinking-houses are now 2,507, whereas there were 3,162 ten years ago. The present number of distilleries is 200; in 1825 there were 1129. In the city of New York the grain distilleries in 1827 were 17; there are now only 9, and the importation of foreign spirits has in the last twelve months decreased twenty-five per cent. I need not discuss here the intrinsic importance of these facts, or of these mistakes. I wish only to show that the Captain is not to be relied on. His writing-habits are too loose. So much for travellers. I will dismiss the subject with adding that Mr. Stephens is just gone to Guatemala on a diplomatic mission, which will give him capital opportunities; and of these he is determined to make the best use. We may expect something, therefore, about the great ruins. Catherwood, the "Jerusalem-man," goes with him to draw.

I ought, perhaps, to take some notice of Chevalier de Guesnier's late document about our railroads, which he has so thoroughly examined. It is not yet complete, but shows some results of much interest. He makes out that there are 3,000 miles finished in the United States, and rates the number for next spring at 4,100. The capital invested is about \$60,000,000, or \$20,000 a mile. The average profit is now  $\frac{5}{2}$  per cent., with a yearly increase, however, of 15 to 20 per cent. in the gross income; so that the investment is pronounced a good one. In Belgium the roads have cost \$11,300 a mile, or double ours. The cost of travelling is there but one-fifth what ours is. The rate of speed here, including stoppages, is 10 to 15 miles the hour; there, 17. Their gross income is \$6,000 the mile, while ours is \$3,675. The average Belgian profit is 5 per cent. to our  $\frac{5}{2}$ . We are discussing briskly, just now, the proposed reduction of prices on some of our great lines. There are considerations about it, peculiar to this country, which will readily occur to you. The Chevalier observes that most of our locomotives are made at home now, and he speaks well of them. I see that the Philadelphians continue to send them to Europe. On the other hand, a Liverpool ship brought us a whole iron steamer, the other day, in sections. The length is 160 feet, I believe! They have just launched a much larger one at Pittsburg.

At St. Louis they talk strongly of a *wire suspension bridge over the Mississippi*, and the city has appropriated money for the purpose.

Speaking of curiosities, you may have heard Cochran's many-chambered rifles and ordnance spoken of. He is now making a six-pounder for Mehemet Ali! He made a twelve-pounder for the Sultan, at Constantinople, in 1835, which gives eight discharges a minute, and has no recoil.

The *silk* notion is not so wild with us as it has been, but is more decided. I have no doubt that we shall be able to produce the raw article, as we do cotton, for exportation. Why should not France, for instance, take it from us, instead of Italy, and, in exchange for the manufactured articles, of which we take \$20,000,000 worth yearly of her. At the south and west they can raise it very cheap, and if cotton is to fail them, it can be raised still cheaper. The Abolitionists are already advising the slave-holders to look to it. The latter, you know, have been trying to keep up their cotton-prices by combination. They might as well "buy the moon." Here is a specimen of our trafficking, which poor Mathews would have laughed at. About 250,000 mulberry-trees, the paper says, "the property of Mr. Physic, were sold by public auction yesterday, in the short space of twenty minutes. Upwards of 3,000 persons were in attendance. The trees were sold by catalogue as they stood in rows, and the most of them were purchased by individuals from other States. They averaged about three feet in height, and the sales amounted to about \$73,000." This Mr. Physic has his coconery at German town, near Philadelphia, and has fed this season 2,000,000 of worms, and has 400,000 mulberry trees growing. He is about planting sixty acres more—and the year after next he calculates on feeding 15,000,000 of worms!

I see you talk of an Agricultural College, and a Professorship at Oxford. We are thinking of like things here. The Legislature of New York have incorporated a State Agricultural School, with a capital of \$100,000, with liberty to increase it to \$200,000. It contemplates a farm of three or four hundred acres of land, with suitable buildings, &c. The education interest in general does not subside. The state of Missouri has done itself credit on this score. The case may strike you as a little curious, and I quote a notice at length from a St. Louis paper:—

"We learn that the Book Commissioners for building the State University, returned to Jefferson city, from their examination of sites proposed in the different counties, and opened the bids on the 24th instant. The following is a statement of the bids of the several counties, including the lands, viz:—

Boon County .....	\$117,921
Collaway County ....	99,154
Howard County ....	96,799
Cooper County .....	46,137
Cole County .....	38,064

Boon county being the highest bidder, and offering an eligible site, was selected as the county entitled to the location. Boon gives three hundred acres of land, adjoining the town of Columbia, on a part of which stands the Columbia College building. The site is equal in beauty to any that could be selected in the State; the lands, a fraction less than three hundred acres, and the buildings, were valued at about \$30,000."

I do not remember whether I have ever mentioned a Mr. Burritt, a working blacksmith in Massachusetts, who has lately made a sensation among our savans. He has, somehow or other, managed to acquaint himself extensively with thirty or forty languages. The Royal Society of Antiquaries at Paris have just sent him some books to help him in the Celto-Breton, with a highly complimentary letter. The French Academy of Industry have also awarded to Professor Morse, of New York, a medal for his electro-magnetic telegraph; but I have not heard of any practical results from this invention.

#### OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

It is our sad duty to open the New Year by addressing to the Obituary of the past.

We have first to record the death of a distinguished Academician, William Hilton, one among the few British painters who bent his efforts to sustain Historical Art—efforts which could only deserve success, without being able to command it. Patronage at present runs in another and a lower line, to which Genius will seldom stoop, unless it have more prudence than pride. Some of his pictures stand as public monuments—the 'Magdalen washing Christ's feet' in London, the 'Crucifixion' at Liverpool, the 'Lazarus' at Newark. A work of fine colour and effect, the 'Crowning with Thorns,' was bought and presented, we believe, by the British Institution to St. Peter's Chapel, London. Several remain at his own apartments—'St. Peter in Prison,' 'Sir Calpepine,' &c. His 'Death of Harold,' and 'Rebecca at the Well' are in the collection of Mr. Vernon, whose taste and liberal patriotic spirit our noblemen seem prone rather to envy than imitate. Let us here cite an illustrative anecdote: a certain high-titled personage, who shall be nameless, bought of the painter a five hundred pound picture—released himself afterwards from his bargain, on the ground of hallucination at the time—and after that again, purchased a large *ducal* property, which he added to his own! Mr. Hilton was a skilful designer for an Englishman, and even as such, a superior colourist. His 'Europa,' 'Amphitrite,' and other works, evince this latter quality to a pre-eminent degree. Among his later productions, were the 'Infant Warrior,' exhibited in 1836, and the 'Murder of the Innocents,' in 1838. Many of his works we have not mentioned: among which, his 'Comus,' an earlier specimen, of less perfect mechanism, displays much original character and beauty. Born at Lincoln, he was first apprenticed to a mezzotint engraver; was elected R.A. in 1820—'Ganymede' being his presentation picture, still visible at the Academy—of which he was Keeper till his demise. He died on Monday, the 30th of last month, aged fifty-three, at the house of his brother-in-law, Mr. De Wint, the

water-colourist, who possesses various of his drawings, exquisite for grace and poetic conception. His death was occasioned by the asthma, and by the strength of his affections; for he never recovered the loss of a beloved wife some years since. Though his frame was attenuated by sickness and sorrow, he retained the lustre of genius in his eye, and its brightness on his expansive forehead, to the last. His manners were singularly amiable and pleasing. It is more than the common cant of posthumous panegyric to add, that he died regretted, respected, and admired by all who could appreciate mental and moral excellence in union.

Another loss which will be severely felt in an extensive circle of private friends is, that of Mr. James Smith, one of the authors of 'The Rejected Addresses.' He died on Tuesday the 24th ult., in his 65th year, after a long and painful illness, the result of which was, we know, foreseen by him many months since, and met with cheerful resignation.—On the same day also, died, Davies Gilbert, formerly President of the Royal Society. He was an amiable and accomplished gentleman, devoted to science and literature. He wrote several works connected with the History and Antiquities of Cornwall, Memoirs on Suspension Bridges, the Improvement of Steam Engines, and other scientific subjects.

Among the publishing announcements of the last few days, one of the most important is from Mr. Charles Knight, of 'A Complete Dictionary of Geography.' Such a work is much wanted; and nothing can be more pleasant and plausible than the Prospectus. The Editors, indeed, promise everything that ought to be desired, and we are quite willing to believe that they intend, to the utmost of their ability, to keep their word; but we must say, as we did when the great Biographical Dictionary was announced, give us their names, and the names of their *collaborateurs*, and then we shall be able to judge for ourselves; and when the work is printed, affix the signature of the writer to each article—let us have no joint-stock responsibility. Another work of a like character, announced by Messrs. Taylor & Walton, is 'A Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities.' The works of Potter and Adam are well known, and were not, at the time of publication, undeserving of the fame they acquired; but philological studies have made great progress in Europe, especially in Germany, within the last forty or fifty years, and it is high time that our own literature should benefit by these researches. We have good hopes that this Dictionary will answer expectation, for the publishers state that the initials of the writer shall be affixed to each article, and a list of the names of the contributors published at the close of the work.—We may here mention one or two other works stated to be forthcoming, although we are not certain that we have not announced some of them before. Among those of best promise, are 'Travels in Cuba,' by D. Turnbull.—'Narrative of a Voyage to Madeira, Teneriffe, and along the Shores of the Mediterranean,' by W. R. Wilde.—'Eleven Years in Ceylon,' by Major Forbes.—'Memoirs of the Princess Dashkoff, Lady of Honour to the Empress Catherine the Second.'—'The Court and Camp of Runjeet Sing,' by the Hon. G. W. Osborne.—'Lights and Shades of Military Life,' by Major-General Sir C. Napier.—'The Ingoldsby Legends.'—'The Path-finder,' by Fenimore Cooper.—and 'Cousin Geoffrey,' by Theodore Hook.

What may be the position of Painting in England during the next twelve months, when the court shall possess a Prince who, according to rumour, has not only elegant and intellectual tastes, but a desire to surround himself with persons of equal refinement, it is not easy to foresee. The possible direction which Music may take is, we think, more clearly indicated by a sign or two; and these come not from the Court, but from among the people. Though we gladly accept, by way of hopeful promise, such indications as are afforded by the success of the *Concerts Musard*—for the accommodation of which a splendid room is about to be erected immediately on the site chosen last season, that of Jaunny's Hotel, Leicester Square—we cannot but remember, that the popularity of their model, the *Parisian one-franc Concerts*, has been ephemeral—nay, beyond this, we cannot but conceive that many peculiar and social hindrances still stand in the way to prevent our

countrymen from becoming clever instrumental performers, or, if such, willing to subject themselves to subordination for the production of great general effects. At the same time, we know, that a real and honest love of the Art is spreading throughout the middle classes, and of this the increasing adoption and practice of choral music would seem to be not only the natural, but also the inevitable development. Facts are on our side—witness the prosperity of the Exeter Hall amateurs, which enables them this year to add to their resources an organ of great power and excellence. An improved orchestra is now their desideratum; a conductor capable of not only advancing with, but also of leading the ranks under his care. Every good and considerate feeling forbids us to speak harshly of one who has managed to train up and keep together a Society now capable of effecting any musical end; but we must, for Art's sake, wish that the commander were further ahead of his troops, more sensitive to the deficiencies of his corps, and more capable of correcting them. But, besides the great doings at Exeter Hall,—success be with them for the year 1840!—and besides the flourishing of the less-known City societies, not forgotten, though somewhat kept out of notice by the showier distractions of this Babel—other signs of a disposition to take up vocal music are apparent. More than one professor has recently announced his intention of opening classes for part-singers—more than one rumour has been brought to us of attempts likely to be made to diffuse the same sound and healthful accomplishment among the classes analogous to those instructed by M. Mainzer, in Paris (*Athen. No. 527*). Whether, however, these efforts concern artists, amateurs, or the people, we trust that all who occupy themselves with reviving a hearty and wholesome English pastime, will fulfil their task sensibly as well as diligently, and depart so far at least from the traditions of their ancestors, as to reject that repulsive and unnatural thing, the counter-tenor or male alto voice. Another month will see the musical season of London fairly, and we hope fruitfully, commenced. Many are the reports of great activity astir among the Philharmonic Directors, which, as they ought, begin with an entire and radical reform in the position of the several instruments in their orchestra, by which the singers, instead of, as formerly, being drowned by the *violoncelli* and *contrabassi* which circled them, will stand in the midst of the violins, the latter being advanced to foremost places. It is fruitless, we suppose, to wish for such a further change as should ensure us one leader and conductor for the entire season: contenting ourselves, therefore, with what is within reach, we must rest on the promises of striking novelties so liberally made—Spohr's Historical Symphony, and Berlioz's orchestral version of 'Romeo and Juliet' (to be directed by its composer), being among the number. Another change in the statutes of the Philharmonic Society abolishes the single guinea tickets, and replaces the audience in its old exclusiveness. The *Antient Concerts*, too, are about to be re-organized—how, it is not yet known. Mr. Blagrove's quartet party will resume their performances early in February, with the additional aid of Mr. Lindley and Sig. Dragonetti: till then, we presume the present pause will continue. As to the Italian Opera, so little novelty has hitherto marked its course in Paris—the 'Inez de Castro' of Persiani (the husband of the *prima donna*) being the only new work hitherto produced; and that one so weak, as only to be resorted to as a last resource—that little novelty is, we fear, to be looked for in London. The present dearth of new music for the lyric stage of Italy, is pressing enough almost to force from us the wish that Rossini was, by circumstances, driven once again to the garret and the truckle-bed, under the pressure of whose wretchedness he wrote his 'Mosè' and 'Barbiere,' and, best of all, his 'Otello'!

Some of our readers may like to be informed, that the New Mineral Gallery, and the New South Gallery, at the British Museum, containing the coral, sea-egg, star-fish, and insects, have been this week opened to the public.

The recent Malta journals mention some interesting and extensive excavations as having recently taken place at Crendi, near Makluba, distant about six miles from Valetta. The site of these operations had long been marked by some rude and gigantic

masses of stone, obviously artificially deposited there; but it was only on the 24th of last October that the task of upturning the earth commenced. As the work proceeded, the outlines of a building were clearly made out. It is divided into three parts, the foundations of Cyclopean massiveness—within and without are various architectural fragments of the same date. The bones of animals were also found, fragments of pottery, eight grotesque idols, and one naked figure, all much mutilated. In their dwarfishness and uncouth attitudes, these figures are said to bear some resemblance to the Bacchus recently discovered at Pompeii, and now in the Museo Borbonico at Naples. All, with the exception of one, which is of *terra cotta*, are made of the *terra dura* of Malta. Further results may still be hoped for from these excavations. The remains at present discovered are considered by antiquaries and learned persons as sepulchral.

It is stated, in a letter from Russia, that the Emperor has created in the Academy of Medicine at St. Petersburg a professorship of the Literature and History of Medicine, and ordered the publication of a Medical Journal, in foreign languages. The army physician, Theodore Stürmer, well known for his scientific labours, has been appointed to fill the new chair, as also to be the translator of the Academic Journal.

**SPLENDID EXHIBITION.—ROYAL GALLERY, ADELPHI-STREET, LOWTHER ARCADE, WEST STRAND.**—Polarization of Light, by Mr. Goddard's Polaroscope—Patent Lathes, from Manchester—Electrical Eel, alive, the only one in Europe—Electricity and Magnetism—Steam-Gun—Oxy-hydrogen Microscope—Mr. Robson's Patent Signal Lights shown daily, and innumerable other attractive Novelties—Open daily at 10, A.M.—Admission, 1s.

**POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION, 393, Regent-street.**—MORNING AND EVENING EXHIBITIONS.—Hours of Exhibitions:—Twelve, Magnetic Experiments; half-past twelve, Microscope; one, Pneumatic Telegraph; half-past one, Operations in the Hall of Manufactures; two, Lecture on Chemistry, or Natural Philosophy; quarter to three, Electrical Experiments; quarter-past three, Diver and Diving-Bell; four, Microscope.—Amongst the Models, is the Brick-making Machine, invented by Lord Tweeddale, together with the finest specimens of the Daguerreotype, and the formation of Medals by Voltaic Electricity.—Open daily at half-past ten, and close at half-past four. Admission, 1s. each.

**THE THAMES TUNNEL.**—IS OPEN to the Public every day, (except Sunday), from Nine in the Morning until Dark.—Admission 1s. each. Entrance near the Church at Rotherhithe, on the Surrey side of the River. The Tunnel is now upwards of 1,000 feet in length, brilliantly lighted with gas, and is completed to WITHIN 10 FEET FROM THE WHARF WALL AT WAPPING. By order, J. CHARLIER, Clerk to the Company. Walbrook Buildings, Walbrook, December, 1839.

## SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

### STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

Dec. 16.—T. R. Edmonds, Esq., in the chair.—Seven new Fellows of the Society were elected; and five Foreign Honorary Members: M. Duquetiaux of Brussels, M. Mallet of Geneva, M. Villermé of Paris, M. Meidinger of Frankfurt, and Sig. Gioja of Naples. The attention of the Society was first directed to a statistical account of Leeds, an abstract of which was communicated to the Society by Mr. Baker, a member of the Town Council of Leeds, and the principal agent in the prosecution of the plan for collecting the requisite facts. This gentleman was present, and, at the request of the meeting, he offered a series of statements, descriptive and explanatory, of the objects and results of this inquiry, which is especially worthy of public notice and commendation, not only as exhibiting an accurate account of the condition of the working classes in one of the most populous and important manufacturing towns in the kingdom, but as furnishing the first instance of a municipal council undertaking a methodical investigation of the condition of the town and population under its charge, for the purpose of ascertaining the existence, and full extent, of evils and abuses requiring remedy. In November, 1838, the town council appointed, and provided with funds, a statistical committee, which accomplished the objects proposed, and reported thereon at the end of last October. The expense incurred was 320*l.*, and the exact knowledge of facts thus obtained is valuable, as well for the purposes of good municipal government as for general statistical comparisons. The following are a few of the principal facts collected:—many of the streets of Leeds are notorious for their wretched and filthy appearance. The sewerage, drainage, and cleansing of the streets formed, therefore, one of the primary points of the statistical com-



mittee's inquiry. Of a total of 586 streets only 68 are paved by the town, 137 are merely partially, and badly, paved, and never swept; and 96 are neither paved, drained, sewered, nor swept. Several streets, inhabited by large numbers of the working classes, are almost impassable in wet weather, and exhibit accumulations of every description of filth and refuse. One, in particular, containing 176 poor inhabitants, was instanced, as not having had its filthy surface disturbed since the time of its formation, 15 years ago. Many whole streets of dwellings, occupied by hundreds of the manufacturing classes, are destitute of every means of preserving that cleanliness and decency which distinguish civilized communities from hordes of savages, so that the surface of the street often forms a general and undisturbed receptacle, presenting at once a source of extreme disgust to the mind, and of dangerous disease to the body. A further proof of the neglected condition of the streets inhabited by the operatives appears in the facts that, more than 200 are crossed by clothes lines, which obstruct, and occasion many accidents to passengers at night, and that during the prosecution of the present statistical inquiry the openings of cellar steps in the streets were the cause of five cases of broken legs. Only 40 of the total 586 streets are wholly sewered; 47 are partially sewered, 159 are wholly without sewers, and of 356 it is not ascertainable if they are sewered or not. The influence of cleanliness on the duration of human life appears in a decrease of the rate of mortality inversely proportionate with the increase of cleanly observances, for in the districts most subject to filthy nuisances the deaths are as 1 to 23, while in those better provided with the means of cleanliness they are only 1 to 36. A table of 1,742 deaths, distinguishing the trades of the persons, and the diseases of which they died, shows that, out of that number 700 were from consumption. The total population of Leeds is 82,120, consisting of 39,411 males, and 42,709 females. The number of inhabited dwelling-houses is 17,839, of which 661 are occupied by owners, and 17,178 by tenants. Uninhabited dwellings 440. Number of dwellings rented under 5*l.* 5,272; between 5*l.* and 10*l.* 8,331; 10*l.* to 20*l.* 2,640; above 20*l.* 1,596. Cellar dwellings 555. The average number of individuals to each family is 4½. Married persons 27,762; single 999; widows 2,297; widowers 693; lodgers 4,283; domestic servants 4,509; children 41,577. Irish families 996. Children under the age of 9 years 20,445; between 9 and 13 years 6,854; between 13 and 21 years 9,947; above 21 years 4,331. The number of the population engaged in manual work is 61,675, namely,—power-loom weavers 10,663; hand-loom weavers 1,289; about 4,000 are employed in the manufacture of flax; woolcombers 138; select trades, 13,233; miscellaneous 17,916; and children and servants 18,436. A series of tables exhibit the statistics of crime in Leeds during the last 9 years, specifying the number, age, sex, and trade of every person brought before the magistrates, and the results of their trials. The amount of poor rate annually collected on property is 16,672*l.* There are 216 inns and public houses, and 235 beer-shops. Houses of ill fame 98—51 public and 47 private; and 2 public gambling houses. There are 2 churches, and 31 dissenting chapels, affording accommodation for 47,051 persons, out of a total population of 82,120. With respect to popular education, it is ascertained that the number of children attending 156 day-schools, including 360 children in factory schools, is 6,769; and in Sunday schools there are 11,439. It is hence shown that the number of children not attending any school is 15,232. In 80 of the 156 schools, writing and arithmetic are not taught, and only in a very few is taught anything beyond the rudiments of English reading. Many other facts have been subjected to the careful examination of the Leeds Statistical Committee, the particulars of which will come before the public in a more elaborate form when the corporation prints the Report of its inquiry.

An abstract was next read of the Report of the Rev. Mr. Clay 'On the Criminal Offenders confined in the Gaol of Preston,' together with an abstract of a similar Report of the Rev. Mr. Burnet, respecting the Gaol of Lewes.

A third paper was brought before the Society 'On the Commercial Statistics of Ceylon,' by John Capper, Esq., Corresponding Member.—It exhibited

a number of numerical facts indicating the progress of commerce in the island, its natural resources and capabilities, and the operation of causes producing a rapid increase of its importance to Great Britain as a wealthy commercial colony.

#### ASTRONOMICAL SOCIETY.

Dec. 14.—Francis Baily, Esq. in the chair.

The Rev. J. W. Maher, B.A., of Queen's College, Cambridge; the Rev. Temple Chevallier, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the University of Durham; Lieut. Henry D. Harness, R.E.; and Stephen J. Rigaud, Esq., Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, were severally balloted for, and duly elected Fellows of the Society.

The following communications were read:—

1. On the Parallax of Sirius. By Thomas Henderson, Esq. Astronomer Royal for Scotland.—The parallax of Sirius, the brightest star in the heavens, has been several times the subject of investigation among astronomers. From the variations of the zenith distances observed at Paris, the second Cassini inferred a parallax in declination amounting to six seconds of space; and, from similar variations in the observations of La Caille made at the Cape of Good Hope, some astronomers have deduced a parallax in declination of four seconds. Piazzi has also obtained from his observations a parallax of the same amount. On the other hand, La Caille's observations of zenith distances made at Paris, more numerous and certain than those made at the Cape, do not exhibit any sensible parallax; and the observations which have since been made in the observatories of Europe, would appear to lead to the same result, as no parallax has ever been deduced from them. In the *Fundamenta Astronomiæ*, M. Bessel has investigated, from Bradley's Observations of Differences of Right Ascension of Sirius and  $\alpha$  Lyrae, the sum of the parallaxes of the two stars, and has found it to be an insensible quantity. The extensive series of observations of Sirius, made with the mural circle of the Observatory at the Cape of Good Hope, is well adapted for the investigation of the parallax, as the observations possess some advantages over those made in Europe. The star is near the zenith of the Cape, and the temperature is nearly the same when it passes the meridian at noon in June, and at midnight in December, the periods of the greatest parallaxes in declination; so that the irregularities and uncertainties of refraction, which affect observations in Europe, may be supposed to disappear. From May 1832 to May 1833, ninety-seven observations of Sirius were made by Mr. Henderson with the mural circle at the Cape Observatory, of which sixty-three were made by direct vision, and thirty-four by reflexion; and in Mr. Maclear's printed observations of zenith distances, made with the same instrument, there are sixty-seven observations of the double altitude of the star, made between August 1836 and December 1837. Each of these series of observations was made in one position of the telescope upon the circle, so that in each series the similar observations were referred to the same divisions. The observations made by Mr. Henderson have been reduced in the same manner as those of  $\alpha$  Centauri, given in his memoir on the parallax of the latter star. The declinations of Sirius have been determined by comparisons with such of the principal or standard stars as were observed on the same day; and it is consequently assumed that, in the observations of the stars of comparison, any errors which may arise from supposing their parallaxes to be insensible, and the coefficient of aberration to be correctly assumed, neutralize each other. The mean declinations of the standard stars of comparison have been taken from the catalogue annexed to the author's 'Memoir on the Declinations of the Principal Stars;' the absolute places of the stars are not required, but only their relative positions with regard to each other. On the whole, Mr. Henderson concludes that the parallax of Sirius is not greater than half a second of space, and that it is probably much less.

2. 'A Catalogue of Twenty-seven Stars of the Pleiades.' By M. Bessel, Director of the Observatory of Königsberg.—The catalogue was computed by M. Bessel from meridian observations made by himself and his assistant Dr. Busche. It contains the positions, annual precession, and its secular variations in AR and declination, together with the

proper motions, and a comparison with Piazzi's catalogue. In a letter addressed to Mr. Baily, containing the above catalogue, M. Bessel announces, that the observations respecting the parallax of 61 Cygni (of which an account has been already given in this journal) have been continued through a second year; and that the result of this new series will agree very nearly with that of the first. The publication of the observations will be delayed for a few months, in order to obtain a more certain determination of the proper motions which the two small stars compared seem to possess; and he adds, that although the weight of the former result was sufficiently great to leave no doubt about the real existence of the parallax, it is gratifying to see its quantity so very nearly confirmed by a second series of observations.

3. A Letter from M. Valz, Director of the Observatory at Marseilles, to the President, Sir J. F. W. Herschel, Bart., relative to the Variation of the Apparent Diameter of Encke's Comet.—After adverting to some objections suggested by Sir John Herschel to the theory by which M. Valz explains the changes observed in the apparent diameters of some comets, when near their perihelion, namely, the condensation of volume produced by the pressure of an ethereal medium, growing more dense in the vicinity of the sun, the author proceeds to give his own observations, on Encke's comet, at the time of its last perihelion passage in 1838, when it appeared under circumstances favourable for observing the nebulosity. He states, that he was able to follow the comet till the evening before the perihelion passage; that he observed it to diminish rapidly, and, after being prodigiously reduced, to melt away, as it were, under his eyes, disappearing only in consequence of its extreme smallness, inasmuch as its brilliancy should, from its position, have continued to increase. The observations and comparisons are then given; and it appears, that the real diameter must have undergone a diminution from the 10th of December, when it was first observed in the morning, until the 18th, when it finally disappeared.

4. A Letter from Professor Schumacher, to Francis Baily, Esq., announcing the Discovery of a Comet by M. Galle, Assistant in the Berlin Observatory.—The comet was discovered on the 2nd of the present month, 17 h. 45 m. mean time (Berlin), in the constellation *Virgo*. Comparing it by the great refractor with a star of the tenth magnitude (which star was immediately compared with  $\gamma$  *Virginis*), M. Galle obtained the following positions:—

Sidereal Time, Berlin.	AR. of Comet.	Declination of Comet.
h. m. s.	h. m. s.	° ' "
11 1 14	12 38 25.18	—2 10 22.6
11 9 42	12 38 28.26	—2 10 13.9
11 21 45	12 38 32.38	—2 9 57.3
11 40 39	12 38 39.63	—2 9 57.3

These observations give its daily motions in AR. +2° 12', in decl. +0° 19'. It has a well-defined point, as a nucleus, within the uniform nebula, which, opposite to the sun, expands in the form of a tail.

5. 'Tables for the Calculation of Precession, for the year 1825, of Stars observed by M. Bessel in the several Zones, from —15° to +15° Declination.' By Dr. Max Weisse, Director of the Observatory at Cracow.

6. 'Observations of Moon and Moon-culminating Stars, Eclipses of Jupiter's Satellites, and Occultations of Fixed Stars by the Moon, made at the Observatory of Paramatta, in New South Wales, in the year 1838, by Mr. Dunlop.' Communicated by Sir Thomas Macdougall Brisbane, Bart.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Nov. 4.—G. R. Waterhouse, Esq., Vice President, in the chair.—Mr. W. Lack, Esq., was elected a member.—Mr. Trenchard exhibited a remarkable variety of *Vanessa Urticae*, and Mr. Hope a collection of insects from Sierra Leone, including fine specimens of two extremely rare Goliath beetles, *G. Torquatus* and *G. (Eudacilla) Morgani*, the last of which had been heretofore unique in the British Museum. Mr. Newport exhibited and made some remarks upon a specimen of *Scelopendra morsitans*, one leg of which was of very small size, and had apparently been reproduced, upon which interesting physiological fact a discussion ensued amongst the members.—A paper, by Dr. Imhoff, of Basle, consisting of critical observations



upon Mr. Kirby's *Monographia Apum Anglia*, was read; and Mr. A. White communicated an extract relative to an extensive migration of dragon-flies.

Dec. 2.—George Newport, Esq., V. P., in the chair.—Mr. Waterhouse exhibited the larva of a lamellicorn insect, from the body of which a vegetable excrescence (*Sphæria*?) of considerable size had grown. Other instances were also mentioned of a similar occurrence, especially that of a caterpillar in New Zealand, and North American Cicada, which are very often found to be similarly infested with these vegetable parasites. Dr. J. W. Calvert noticed the attacks to which his fields of standing corn had been subjected by a caterpillar, evidently that of one of the Noctuidæ, which fed upon the grains of wheat in the ear whilst standing in the field. He also exhibited the cocoon of a moth, in which a great number of the cocoons of a minute species of ichneumonideous parasite were beautifully arranged in close connexion. Mr. Westwood also exhibited the nests of various species of social insects, in which they had either availed themselves of a common covering, or had arranged their cocoons in close contact together. A memoir was read by W. W. Saunders, Esq., containing descriptions of new exotic Diptera, chiefly from the East Indies. A further discussion took place relative to the reproduction of the limb of the Scolopendra exhibited at the preceding meeting, in which Mr. Ashton drew the distinction between the reproduction of these limbs by the Annulosa, which only occurs at the period of moulting, previous to the animals arriving at perfection, and that which is constantly going forward throughout the active life of the higher animals.

#### MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

FRI.	Asiatic Society	Two, P.M.
	Westminster Medical Society	Eight.
MON.	Entomological Society	Eight.
	Society of British Architects	Eight.
	Geological Society	p. Eight.
WED.	Medico-Botanical Society	Eight.
	Society of Arts	p. Seven.
	Literary Fund	Three.
	Royal Society	p. Eight.
THUR.	Royal Society of Literature	Four.
	Society of Antiquaries	Eight.
FRI.	Astronomical Society	Eight.

#### MUSIC

##### NEW PUBLICATIONS.

The writer of the letters from North Germany, which recently appeared in our columns, commented freely on the present stagnant state of vocal musical composition in the land of Mozart and Weber. To judge from the heap of new publications before us—a part of which only has been selected for notice, the rest being unworthy—the same disheartening lethargy prevails in our own land, and in Italy. Should it continue much longer, the lovers of melody will be reduced to live entirely upon the echoes of other days.

To begin at home with half-a-dozen of the *Songs and Duets* interpolated by Mr. Alexander Lee, into Auber's 'Fairy Lake,' in place of the original music—what can be more trite and frivolous—more absolutely devoid of all attempt to make sound and sense move in harmonious union? The French composer's music to this opera is, perhaps, his weakest—witness the *Overture*, the *Galop*, and other *Airs de Ballet*, published, under a variety of forms, by Messrs. D'Almaine & Co. But even when Auber is the most flimsy, the most closely approaching to French vulgarity, there is always in his music a sparkle of that point and piquancy, which make 'Fra Diavolo' so charming, 'Masaniello' so brilliant, and 'Le Domino Noir' so elegant;—always a clearness and purpose in his compositions, which raise them high above the namby-pamby of such productions as Mr. Lee's. These latter make us look back to the ballads of Mr. Bishop, as gigantic efforts of genius; and yet we have always held the whole ballad school of writing in but indifferent esteem. Closely akin to this music of the 'Fairy Lake,' in absence of merit and character, are the songs from the 'Lass o' Gowrie,' by Mr. Leigh Smith: and yet one of these, with other native melodies, not an iota more substantial or characteristic, has been thought worthy of being included in the *Musical Bijou* for 1840. This publication, again, gives us an opportunity to lament the low standard of our vocal writing; since the airs contributed by Herz, Panzeron, and even the waltz of Strauss dragged out of shape to do duty to

English words, appear positively original and expressive—by contrast. The best portion of the *Musical Bijou* is made up of the waltzes by Labitzky and Lanner; which, though inferior to those by Strauss, are still pretty and spirited, and are arranged in a very accessible form by Valentine. But we need only turn to the *Harmonist*, Vol. I., to perceive, by comparison, the worthless even of this *bijouterie*. And yet the *Harmonist*, a cheap miscellany of vocal and instrumental music, by classic writers, and some who would write themselves down as such, on very small grounds, contains its *third* of what is trite and frivolous. We hope the "eminent professor" who is announced on the title-page as its superintendant will exercise a stricter taste in selecting the contents of future volumes. The present one, however, as a whole, justifies us in wishing him success.

Something of a far higher order than the songs concerning which we have just told the whole discouraging truth, is before us in these *Two Songs from the German of Schiller and Uhland*, by J. Thomson, of Edinburgh, and Mr. Dickens's *Ivy Green*—the last set in the form of a song and chorus, by the same author. Mr. Thomson, dilettante no longer, inasmuch as he has been recently elected to the Edinburgh Musical Professorship—always ranked in our estimation as the first among our amateur composers; as the most original and spirited in his conceptions, and the most masterly in employing the resources of science, of which he has not unfrequently selected the abstruse and difficult. This character his two songs, the *Canadian Death Song*, and the *Serenade*, amply justify. The first has a dark and uncouth wildness of character, (not wholly without a Scottish tinge, *vide* the C natural at the close of the symphony,) which fits the savage scenery of its subject. The second, a child's death song, is only too richly accompanied and inwrought with harmonic changes, to stand a chance of popularity among English vocalists; who, too many of them,—from sheer idleness or incompetence,—prefer singing to the accompaniment of one and the same unchanging bass for ten bars together. The 'Ivy Green' is in the manner, and not the worst manner, of the Chevalier Neukomm. Three compositions by another amateur, Mr. J. Lodge Ellerton, are before us,—*How beautiful is Night!* a sweet and smooth prize glee, in which the writer has gone to the other extreme from Mr. Thomson, that of parsimony in modulation;—and *The Braes o' Ballochmyle*, and *O! festive Spring*,—two chamber duets for female voices, the chief merit of which lies in their being an addition to our too small stores of this elegant and agreeable class of drawing-room music; in which the Italians, thanks to Blangini, Crescentini, Vaccai, Gabussi, and many others, are so rich. Another attempt of the same nature, and as far as the music goes, better wrought out, both as to originality and variety, will be found in *Six Duets for Two Soprano Voices*, the words by Henry F. Chorley, the music by John Hullah.

Six new numbers of Messrs. Boosey's well selected *Troubadour du Jour*, carry us into the domains of the French romance and the Italian canzonet. The best of the half-dozen is M. Niedermeyer's romance, *Venise est encore au bal*, from his unsuccessful 'Stradella.' The contributions by Madlle. Louisa Puget, whose operetta of *Le Mauvais Œil* found such pleasant occupation for Cinti Damoreau's airs and graces, some two seasons since, are hardly worth their place in the collection. With these, we may notice M. Masini's effective though mannered nocturne, *Il faut être deux*, and Lord Burghersh's innocuous canzonetta, *E pur fra le tempeste*, written to suit Rubini's high notes and languid, long-drawn *cantabile*. The last vocal music to be noticed on the present occasion, is Signor Ricci's *Le Rendez-vous au Salon*, containing six ariettes and six nocturnes for two voices. In these, the sprightly composer of 'La Scaramuccia' has not been able to attain to the poor merit of pretty commonplace, which belongs to the most modern Italian school. All that is not rapid in his book, is positively bad, let the standard be ever so charitable. In such a blank and weary dearth of Italian composers, it occurs to us to inquire, what has become of *Il Maestro Pacini*? He did not seem original or individual in more plenteous times:—but now, melodies and airs by him recur to us—one, in particular, which Mde. Meric Lalande used to sing; another, sung two years

ago by Sig. Ivanoff—ininitely fresher and more full of vitality than the productions now issued by the manufactories of Signori Donizetti and Mercadante, to say nothing of the unwinning insipidities of the work before us.

To speak, lastly, of instrumental music: it is enough to enumerate the titles of Mr. Meves's *Elegant Extracts from the Works of Donizetti and Bellini*, arranged for the use of schools, (schools to which, for musical tuition, no child of ours shall ever go,) and *La Gitana* and *La Cracovienne*, the one arranged by Mr. Glover, the other by M. Herz, and illustrated with a pair of flashy lithographs of Taglioni and Fanny Elssler. Mr. Braham's *Exercises for the Practice and better development of unequally-noted, and obscurely-timed Passages met with in Compositions for the Flute*, with *Remarks on the Shake*, is a well-meant production; but if its principles were carried out, the effect would be, to establish a constant variance between the composer and the performer, as the writer's aim is not the literal performance of the passage as written, but to facilitate the labour of the performer. There are many florid phrases in flute music, where continuity, as well as clearness, is the effect intended; and these would be entirely destroyed by the system of division, which it is the object of these exercises to recommend and illustrate. At best, we cannot desire to see the popularity of the flute extended, as no progress for the art in general can be gained thereby. It is upon the cultivation and practice of stringed instruments that all rational hopes of the foundation and increase of an enlightened body of male amateurs must rest. All such as agree with us, and whose preference leads them to that noble instrument the violoncello, will do well to provide themselves with the two new *Nocturnes*, by Bernhard Romberg, entitled *Amusements des Amateurs*, which form part, we believe, of a series. Not only do their phrases and melodies correspond as admirably with the genius of the instrument, as might be expected from its King, their composer—but they are also beautiful as music, full of an easy and flowing grace totally beyond the reach of the manufacturer. *La Cachucha*, arranged, and well arranged, by the same master, is more showy, and should not be attempted by any one who can not almost shine in a concerto. With these, though not their equal in merit, may be mentioned a *Siciliana and Waltz*, for the violoncello, by W. A. Schindlacher. Returning to the pianoforte,—the *False Originale*, by Weber, (published from the Album of M. Panofka), is an elegant trifle, reminding us of the trio in the *Aufzudehung zum Tanze* of its composer. We have reserved two good works for the close of our notice. The one is an *Andante Religioso*, with variations for the pianoforte, by M. Rosenhain; a fine *Coral*, with changes and enrichments, well contrasted, and giving alternate scope to the force, delicacy, and expressiveness of a player;—the other is a book of *Serenades*, by Mr. Louis Werner. Some of these six compositions have features in common with the 'Romance,' as composed by Field and Steibelt, and the past school of pianists—others bear, in their filling-up and treatment, a family likeness to the *Lieder Ohne Worte* of Mendelssohn. But the series is happily varied; the melodies are all graceful and carefully wrought, and the first, second, fourth, and sixth, besides being very pleasing, are among the most sterling contributions recently made to our instrumental music, by a young English composer.

#### MISCELLANEA

*Restoration of Sight*.—An Italian peasant, born blind, of a blind mother, was not long since successfully couched by a Venetian surgeon. The patient had previously been able to discriminate between day and night, and he immediately called white *light*, and black *dark*, but could not distinguish red from yellow, or blue from green. When first taken to a window, and shown the blue sky above and the living world below, the man, though a poor half-witted creature, was overpowered by his emotions, and actually swooned.

*Supposed Earthquake near Lyme*.—On Christmas Eve, about six o'clock, the residents in the houses and cottages along the coast, between Lyme and Seaton, were alarmed by a convulsion of the earth, attended by fearful sounds: this was succeeded by

reiterations of the phenomena, and it was soon ascertained that a course of mischief was in serious operation. On arriving at a part of the coast called Dowlands, a quarter of a mile from the sea, it was found that a large portion of land, on which there were several cottages, orchards, and a coppice, had been separated from their sites, leaving huge chasms in a lateral direction along the coast between Sidmouth and Seaton to the extent of upwards of four miles. The convulsions of the earth continued at various intervals from the night of Tuesday the 24th December, to Friday evening the 27th, having within that interval occasioned the prostration and subsidence of buildings of various descriptions, and the displacement of large tracts of soil, besides a loss of property to a considerable extent, among the sufferers by which is Mrs. Inman, of Bishop's Hull, whose loss is estimated at upwards of 2,000l. Mr. Hallett, of Axmouth, and Mrs. Dare also suffered heavily by the event. A huge rock, fifty feet high, appears in the sea off Culverhole, nearly a quarter of a mile from the spot where the principal scene of mischief presents itself. The soundings were taken around the newly formed rock on Saturday. No lives were lost by the event, although several of the occupants of cottages, who had left home to spend their Christmas Eve, found to their great astonishment on their return no other vestiges of their dwellings but those presented by the roofs and chimneys discernible above the chasms in which their habitations were engulfed. The new road from Charmouth to Lyme is utterly destroyed. The visitation, beside the destruction of property, has occasioned great alarm and anxiety among the owners of buildings and estates in the vicinity. Multitudes of persons from all parts have been for several days past rushing into Lyme, Seaton, and Charmouth, eager to ascertain the nature and extent of the catastrophe. The total loss of property is estimated at 6,000l. The cliffs on the coast do not appear to have suffered any disruption, all the mischief being inland.—*Taunton Courier*.

**Prison Discipline.**—The King of Sardinia has appointed a commission to examine into and improve the state of the prisons. They have decided upon the necessity of separating the sexes, as also the young from the adult, and the accused from convicts. A sum of two million francs (40,000l.) has been allotted for carrying this great improvement into effect.

**Removal of a Bog.**—On Saturday last, this hitherto peaceable town, Kanturk, was thrown into the greatest state of excitement. It appeared that about three hundred acres of Colonel Longfield's bog, at Farrandoyle, had, trunk-like, gambolled through the country, a distance of four miles, and was about paying a Christmas visit to the Kanturk folks. The scene was terrific. Onward moved the mighty and overwhelming mass, carrying destruction in its course. Occasionally it moved in a compact body; sometimes, on meeting obstructions, it rose in angry surges like the ungovernable sea, elevating enormous pieces of bog-wood. The course of the Brogeen stream was soon impeded, as the bog got into the valley, and the water having become considerably swollen and accumulated behind, forced on the whole mass with fearful violence, and dispersed the bog-stuff and timber to a considerable distance up the acclivities. It is to be regretted that bog timber, to the value of at least 5000l., passed off into the Brackwater, the people being unable to come at it on account of the great depth of the surrounding bog-stuff; and it is calculated that no less than one thousand two hundred acres of meadow and pasture land have been covered, at an average of ten feet. The first movement of the bog was observed by Mr. R. Swayne, of Kanturk, who was shooting on it at the time, and who narrowly escaped being lost; Mr. Swayne having got on *terra firma*, ran with all his might to give warning of the danger; but his speed was unequal to the task, and one house was overwhelmed before he could call out; fortunately, however, no lives have been lost. The bog is still moving, and it is thought, will continue so for many days.—*Cork Standard*.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.—T. T.—Nemo.—M. J.—Rory O'More.—received. We could not comply with the request of "An Amateur" without subjecting ourselves to the advertisement duty. Even the kind and flattering letter of H. H. cannot induce us to alter our resolution; he is mistaken as to the change.

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